The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 23, 1891.

The Week.

Mr. BLAINE'S reply to the Marquis Imperiali on the lynching of Italians by the mob of New Orleans is a very straightforward paper, presenting in clear and respectful terms the position of our Government and the limitations of our Constitution. The substance of it is, that the punishment of the murderers must be left to the local tribunals in the first instance. If the local tribunals do not act as they ought to act and as the local laws require them to act, "it will then be the duty of the United States to consider whether some other form of redress may be asked." Our treaty with Italy does not require us to give greater protection to her citizens domiciled here than is given to our own citizens in like circumstances. Mr. Blaine fails to add—indeed, he could hardly be expected to add—that the lynching of American citizens is a not uncommon incident in the latitude of New Orleans, and that the punishment of the lynchers is very uncommon. "Where the injury inflicted upon a foreign resident," he continues, "is not the act of the Government or its officers, but of an individual or a mob, it is believed that no claim for indemnity can justly be made, unless it shall be made to appear that the public authorities charged with the peace of the community have connived at the unlawful act, or, having timely notice of the threatened danger, have been guilty of such gross negligence in taking the necessary precautions as to amount to connivance." This paragraph clearly looks to the payment of a claim for indemnity, since the public authorities did have timely notice of the threatened danger and took no steps to prevent it. But the Executive branch of the Government is not supplied with a contingent fund to pay such claims. It can only recommend an appropriation by Congress for that purpose, and that is what Mr. Blaine virtually promises.

The observation of the London *Daily News* that this is "fine sport for Mr. Blaine" is very unjust. Nothing has happened since he took office so extremely mortifying to him—a mortification which is shared by every American of intelligence and self-respect. The country has got a bad name by reason of this lynching affair. It will be a long time before the recollection of it wears out at home or abroad. It was a case of high-handed murder, by the statutes of our own and of every other civilized country. The character of the victims makes no difference in the eyes of the law, and it is only by the eyes of the law that foreigners can look at it. Americans travelling in Europe will be assailed with unpleasant questions for a long time to come. The task of standing up and taking it, as Mr. Blaine must by virtue of his office, is far from agreeable. It is the very reverse of fine sport. The only advantage that Mr. Blaine gains from it is that it turns public attention away from his correspondence with Lord Salisbury on Bering Sea matters, where he was getting the worst of it.

It is very difficult to find out, either from the Marquis di Rudini's remarks in the Italian Parliament, or from his written communications to the State Department, what the exact position of the Italian Government in relation to the New Orleans massacre is. Since he abandoned the demand that the United States Government should "punish" the guilty parties, he has failed to make clear what it is he wants. The machinery of justice has been put in motion by the State authorities, and no definite cause of complaint can therefore arise under the law of nations until the State authorities refuse to prosecute, or prosecute with patent negligence and reluctance. His speeches, as well as despatches, in fact, corroborate the guess of the London *Times*, that he is using the incident to strengthen his Ministry at home—an operation in which he is sure to enjoy the secret sympathy of Mr. Blaine, who "knows how it is himself." He must enjoy dealing with the Marquis, who is evidently a man of his own size, after his uncomfortable bout with a big fellow like Salisbury. But can we wonder that foreign diplomatists look on us as barbarians from whom neither law, justice, nor courtesy is to be expected, when they read such remarks as this coming from a United States Senator—namely, Plumb of Kansas? *We* understand Plumb, but why should the Italians understand him?

> "The whole thing is not worth talking about. Suppose the Italian Minister is recalled. Who cares? His departure is of no more consequence to the American people than if the banana-vender who presides over a push-cart at Fifteenth and F Streets should close out business and decide to go home. It's just one man less to board, and that's the only subject for thought there is in the whole matter. Of course there's got to be a lot of letter-writing over the affair, but Mr. Blaine is attending to that most admirably. No one could do any better."

The Italians and all Continental nations believe in courtesy and self-restraint as essential in the forms of intercourse of civilized men, and they make, from the absence of it, all sorts of unpleasant inferences about character. Most of these as applied to Americans are absurd. Senator Plumb would, no doubt, refuse to join in a massacre of unarmed prisoners; but when foreigners hear a man in his high place talking in this way on such an occasion, they believe him and his constituents equal to any act of savagery.

The concessions made by the Spanish Government with reference to trade between the United States and Cuba are of real importance, and in this respect they differ from those made by Brazil, which are really unimportant. It is a misnomer to call either of these concessions reciprocity treaties. The United States has removed the duties on sugar. Thereupon Spain lowers the duties on American flour and cereals and repeals the duties on some other articles, the list of which is not yet published. If Spain's treaty engagements with Great Britain, France, and Germany, or either of them, contain the "most favored nation" clause, and if this clause applies to her colonies, she will be compelled to extend to them the same treatment as to ourselves. This would prevent us from gaining any advantage over other countries in the sale of articles, either raw or manufactured, unless we have a natural advantage. But in cases where we do have a natural advantage the gain will be decided. This will be especially seen in the export of flour, grain, and provisions, and here the gain will be even greater to Cuba than to ourselves. The island has been hitherto chained to the mother country by a tariff so highly protective that American wheat could be bought and carried to Spain, converted into flour there, and shipped to Cuba at a large profit to the Spanish millers. In other words, the Cuban consumer has been "exploited" for the benefit of the Spanish producer in exactly the same way that consumers are exploited for the benefit of producers in this country. This sort of thing is now to be restricted, if not stopped altogether, and the Cubans will reap a great advantage by the simple privilege of being allowed to enjoy their own earnings. The Spanish millers made a vehement protest, of course—the protected classes always do that when anybody interferes with their plunder—but the danger of a new rebellion in Cuba was the greater terror of the two in the eyes of the Madrid Government.

The blow has fallen upon the Republican Boys of Brooklyn. Secretary Tracy's order putting the Navy-yard force upon a thoroughgoing civil-service-reform basis after June 1, leaves no doubt that the Secretary intends to break up the spoils system completely. His order declares that on June 1 all positions of foreman or master mechanic shall become vacant, and that the positions shall be filled by men who pass the best examinations—that is, show the highest fitness for the work demanded in them. The Board of Examiners that the Secretary names for this work is made up of naval officers whose high character gives ample assurance that there will be no humbug about the examinations. These will begin on May 11, and will be open to all comers who are American citizens, present employees being on the same footing as all other candidates. There will be no chance for "pulls" of any kind to be exerted in anybody's behalf, but merit alone will decide in each case. A similar transformation is ordered to take place in the Norfolk Navy-yard on July 1, and Portsmouth, Washington, and Mare Island will follow in due time. This will be a great

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and most salutary reform, and the Secretary cannot be commended too heartily for bringing it about. Reformers are hoping to see the President, before the close of his Administration, make the new system permanent by an executive order placing the whole matter in the charge of the Civil-Service Commission, where it belongs. Let us hope that he will do this without waiting till the end of his term, for delay in such matters is always a risk with the President. A displeasing act of any kind on the part of some wicked Democrats, in remote parts of the land, is likely at any moment to convince him that there can be no more civil-service reform till conduct of that kind has been rebuked by giving a few more offices or a little more patronage to partisan Republicans.

President Harrison fell into a serious error when he remarked in his speech at Johnson City, Tenn. (and he has since repeated it): "We have a common heritage. The Confederate soldier has a full, honorable, and ungrudged participation in all the benefits of a great and just Government." The truth is, that every Confederate soldier is absolutely debarred from holding any position in the army of the United States, section 1218 of the Revised Statutes, enacted on the 28th of July, 1866, reading as follows:

"No person who has served in any capacity in the military, naval, or civil service of the so-called Confederate States, or of either of the States in insurrection during the late Rebellion, shall be appointed to any position in the Army of the United States."

The really significant feature of this matter is, not the fact that Mr. Harrison was guilty of a serious blunder of ignorance or forgetfulness, but rather the fact that it was Mr. Harrison's vote in the Senate five years ago this very month which turned the scales and kept on the statute-book the most odious and galling of all the discriminations which could possibly be placed upon the Confederate soldier. On the 7th of April, 1886, the Senate was considering a bill to increase the efficiency of the army, when Mr. Gibson of Louisiana proposed an additional section repealing the section of the Revised Statutes just quoted, so that men who had served the Confederacy might be eligible as appointees to the new places in the army created by the bill. When the vote was taken, it resulted in 24 yeas for the amendment repealing the statute and 25 nays. Among those recorded as absent was Mr. Harrison, but he had taken the precaution to make sure that his absence should not prevent his position on the question from appearing. The *Congressional Record* contains this statement:

"Mr. Berry (when the name of Mr. Jones of Arkansas was called)—My colleague [Mr. Jones of Arkansas] is paired with the Senator from Indiana [Mr. Harrison]. If my colleague were here, he would vote 'Yea.'"

The Springfield *Union* publishes an interview with Mr. Huston, the Treasurer of the United States, on the subject of paying out silver or silver certificates in cases where the payees desire gold. The question arose on the payment of the direct-tax refund to the State of Massachusetts, in which case silver certificates were tendered and were objected to by Boston bankers. "It would not do," said Treasurer Huston, "to give New England or the East gold, when we have given the West silver. It is but another form of the fight against silver. Ohio took over a million and a quarter of silver money, and never murmured. Illinois, Indiana, and other Western States never thought of protesting against silver. The idea of the East is to concentrate the silver in the West and hoard the gold East. *Then I presume the East would move for a premium on gold.* The Government could not afford to countenance such a movement. It must treat all sections alike. The Department has these silver certificates on hand, and they are to be paid out on first demands." If these are Mr. Huston's ideas, he cannot retire too soon from the office he now holds. When the Government begins to discriminate between gold and silver, the public will be apt to follow the example. No Treasurer of the United States, since specie payments were resumed, has assumed the option of paying out a particular kind of money against the wishes of the payee. Lest some future Treasurer should assume that option, Congress passed a declaratory law on the 14th of June, 1890, saying that it was "the established policy of the United States to maintain the two metals on a parity with each other upon the present legal ratio, or such other ratio as may be established by law." Does Mr. Huston understand that the act of June 14, 1890, is valid only at the Sub-Treasury in New York? If so, he establishes a rate of exchange in favor of New York as against every other commercial centre. He creates a premium on New York funds equal to the cost of shipment of silver certificates and the return of the proceeds. "The East will move for a premium on gold," forsooth! That is a Hoosier conception indeed. The notion that a premium can be made arbitrarily by one section, or by all sections together, is like supposing that a man by taking thought can add a cubit to his stature. The only man who can make such a premium is the Treasurer himself, and he can do it only by alarming other people.

The Boston *Transcript* takes Mr. Geo. S. Boutwell to task for saying, in a speech to the Neo-Republicans of Massachusetts on Wednesday week:

"We are now practically upon a silver basis, and I would offer this suggestion to the Republican party: That all the silver produced within the limits of the United States be coined into currency, and that all the silver mined in other countries be excluded. The idea of putting Germany, England, and the United States upon a gold basis is most suicidal. The time is not far distant when all the countries of the world will be upon the double standard of gold and silver."

It was Secretary Boutwell who recommended the passage of the act demonetizing silver—the act of 1873. His ideas on the subject were perhaps no clearer then than they are now, but he was under better advice then than he is now. The *Transcript* regards his present sayings as merely an attempt to bolster up the protective system by excluding foreign silver and taxing the people to pay handsomely for the domestic product. That may account for the major part of the paragraph quoted, but it does not account for the statement that "we are now practically upon a silver basis." The only way to account for that is by assuming that Mr. Boutwell is considerably off his own basis.

Mr. David A. Wells contributes an interesting chapter to the history of the tin-plate tariff. The drawback on this article when exported in the form of cans is now 99 per cent. of the duties. It was formerly only 90 per cent., the Government reserving 10 per cent. as the equivalent of the cost of collecting the duties, identifying the re-exported article, and refunding the money. The result of the change is to give the Standard Oil Company, which is by far the largest user of tin plate for export, 9 per cent. more than it received under the old law. This is not regarded by Mr. Wells as an objectionable feature, nor ought it to be regarded as such by anybody. The export trade in refined petroleum amounts to $41,000,000 per year, and it has to be carried on in competition with Russian petroleum. The Government ought not to put any obstacles in the way of it. But the fact that the system of our tariff furnishes petroleum packages cheaper for foreigners than for American citizens should not be overlooked. A still weightier fact is mentioned by Mr. Wells, viz., that when the new duty on tin plate began to take shape in Congress, the demand for the article increased, and this caused the price to advance. Everybody wanted to lay in a large stock before the duty should take effect. The price rose to such an extent, and the quantity taken was so great, that it is estimated by good judges that the Welsh manufacturers have reaped an extra profit, since last summer, equal to the entire value of their plant. For this they are indebted to our Mr. McKinley and our Mr. Aldrich mainly. Of course the American consumers of the article pay this extraordinary bonus tossed into the laps of the British tin-plate makers.

How *our* tin-plate works are coming on is a matter of dispute. The *Iron Age*, the most sedate and the best informed of the iron-trade journals, does not consider the outlook encouraging. In its issue of April 16 it says:

"It must be confessed by the most ardent friends of the new industry that the progress thus far made in the domestic manufacture of tin plate has been disappointing. Tin plate and terne plate are being made at several works, it is true, and preparations are going on looking to the erection of other plants, but there is a conservatism, a deliberation, about the whole proceeding which is decidedly at variance with the activity promised by the advocates of a tin-plate industry. It had been supposed that a large number, if not a majority, of the sheet mills would add cold rolls and tinning stacks as soon as adequate tariff protection was assured. This has been done in very few cases, and, so far as we can learn, there are not many sheet-manufacturers to be added to the list of tin-plate makers. The business appears to be remanded by quite general consent to those who will make a specialty of it. The

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sheet mills are evidently not inclined to make the tin-plate manufacture an appendage of their business."

This apathy on the part of the sheet mills, the *Iron Age* thinks, ought to incite the friends and advocates of a domestic tin-plate industry to "missionary work in their own ranks," because, "at the present rate of progress, it is beyond the power of man to calculate when this country will be able to supply its own tin-plate requirements." Perhaps the owners of the sheet mills have had their ardor dampened by late reports from the Black Hills tin mines.

The most striking feature of the recent municipal elections in Kansas was the political aspect which woman suffrage assumed. The law giving the sex the right to vote in municipal elections was passed by a Republican Legislature, and was expected by most of the Republican managers to inure to the advantage of their party, although it is recalled that Gov. Martin did not share this view, and warned the brethren that they would live to regret their action. It was generally believed, however, that the woman vote could be held solid for the Republican party by loud denunciations of the Democrats as "the whiskey party," the "enemies of the home," etc. The latest elections, however, show that the women cannot be depended upon, and that they are always liable to turn over to the Democrats a city which might otherwise go Republican. The Republican organs of Topeka, for example, made every possible effort to prejudice the women against the Democrats, notwithstanding which the Democratic candidate was elected by a total of 4,031 to 3,862 for the Republican, and it is conceded by everybody that he owes his election to the votes of women who are the wives and daughters of Republicans. It was the same way in Leavenworth, where a separate count of the votes cast by men and women was made, which showed that the men were almost evenly divided between the two parties, while the Democratic candidate was supported by 1,232 women, and the Republican by only 945. A similar count in all but two precincts of Kansas City, Kan., showed 787 votes by women for the Democratic candidate, as against but 657 for the Republican; and the success of the Republican candidate by a narrow margin is attributed to the fact that many of the women who were registered did not turn out and help to swell the majority which their sisters cast for the Democratic nominee. Fort Scott is another city where the defeat of the Republican ticket is attributed to the vote of the women.

Naturally, the Republican managers are "mad" at the women, and they make no attempt to conceal it. The chief Republican organ in the State is very bitter. Quoting from another newspaper the remark that "the Equal Suffrage Association is entitled to praise for its good judgment in voting solidly for Cofran," the *Capital* says: "If the above was true, it would simply prove woman suffrage a failure." Again it remarks: "The W. C. T. U. women who helped to defeat the Republican ticket have done more to destroy respect for municipal suffrage for women than they can patch up in ten years." And once more: "One or two more slams such as the women gave the Republican party in Topeka, and there will not be one of the old friends of municipal suffrage left to raise a voice against the repeal of the law." This reminds us that last fall the Republican managers throughout the North were complaining that the women had put the Democrats in power by telling their fathers, and husbands, and brothers that they found the McKinley Bill a bad thing for the family; so that it looks as if the women, with or without suffrage, were no longer to be counted on by the Republican party.

The adjournment of the Minnesota Legislature, with the complete failure of all the measures which were brought forward in the supposed interest of the Farmers' Alliance, is likely to have the same effect upon the Alliance movement as similar failures in Kansas and Nebraska had. The most immediate effect will be upon the Alliance members, who will be thrown over as useless because they have accomplished none of the things expected of them. The secondary effect will be to discourage and demoralize the Alliance itself, for the people who enter into movements of this kind want to have the reforms they are in search of granted immediately. They never take into account the difficulties in the way of drafting and enacting laws to meet especial requirements like theirs. Many a "friend of Labor," in one legislative body or another, has come to early grief because of his inability to put into the form of a law the reform which he had been advocating with great volubility at the time of his election. It is one thing to declare that "something ought to be done," and quite another thing to do something in a legal and effective way. Yet every leader in a people's reform movement is expected to do something in this way, and to do it at once; and if he fails, the end of his career has come.

The statistics which the Secretary of State has published, showing that throughout this State last fall 456,000 people registered who did not vote on election day, are merely fresh evidence that the Republican voters of the State were not in harmony with the policy of their party on the tariff question. It is obviously an error to attribute the falling off in the vote from the registration to the new Ballot Law. Voters who were timid on that point wou'd not have taken the trouble to register. The simplest explanation is, that thousands of Republicans who thought in October that they might vote as usual with their party in November, became so much displeased with their party through the developments of the campaign, and through the workings of the McKinley Bill, that they concluded to stay at home when election day came around. We commend this falling off of nearly a third from the total registration to those Republican opponents of ballot-reform in Pennsylvania who maintain that registration is objectionable because voters will not take the trouble to get their names on the lists.

The bill to provide lyceum lectures at public cost has passed both houses of the Legislature, and is in the hands of the Governor. "His approval is not doubted, but friendly comments by the press may still be useful," says an anonymous circular which has just been sent to us. The circular itself contains friendly comments of the machine-made sort from several rural journals; from the New York *Press*, also, which quotes in favor of the bill "Dr. Chauncey M. Depew," who, the *Press* elegantly says, "in addition to his other relations, is simultaneously Vice-President of the University and School Extension and a Regent of the University of the State of New York"; and finally from the New York *Evening Call*, a journal thus for the first time made known, we suppose, to students of public opinion in New York. The *Evening Call*, however, out of all these authorities, does manage to express the soundest view when it characterizes the scheme as "an educational course that is as near like the Chautauqua course as anything else."

In reading of the English disaster, promptly retrieved, at Manipur, on the borders of Burmah, one must bear in mind that the character of the Indian frontier renders the English very liable to incidents of this sudden and startling kind. Their border line nowhere touches the territory of another organized and responsible government; it runs for hundreds of miles along the skirts of highland country inhabited by predatory races, the irreconcilable enemies, so long as they are free, of the orderly, law-making European. To subdue and pacify them involves an unprofitable expenditure of lives and money; and, moreover, on certain parts of the frontier this zone of tribal land serves as a barrier against more formidable enemies beyond; it is like a quickset hedge full of thorns, good to keep out trespassers. So the English are apt to be content with occasional punitive expenditures, or with reliance upon political influence, until some substantial mishap or disorder calls imperatively for severe measures—until, as at Manipur, some imprudent jump into the quickset hedge draws blood. The line between a civilized province and utter barbarism on the Indian frontier is so slight that English officers, accustomed to the tranquil docility of the Indian folk, are apt to overstep it hastily, with such consequences as have just been witnessed at Manipur. But these consequences, however painful and inglorious, are of no deep or far-reaching political importance; and one result will be that the ever-advancing margin of regular and irresistible government will be pushed forward more speedily, and be laid down more firmly in an almost unexplored borderland.

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THE SERIOUS OUTLOOK IN BERING SEA.

WITHIN a few weeks fur seals will begin to go from the Pacific Ocean through the Aleutian passes to our islands and to the Russian islands in Bering Sea. Canadian vessels and American vessels will lie in wait to kill the seals as heretofore. What orders will President Harrison give to our revenue cutters to be sent to those waters? Will he command the seizure of Canadian vessels found killing seals outside of a marine league from land; and if such seizures shall be attempted, will British cruisers resist, or recapture by force? Will Canadian schooners arm for their own defence? The country has recently been thrown into not a little emotion by rumors of resentment by the Italian Government for what happened at New Orleans; but what will come to pass if President Harrison shall order a seizure in Bering Sea of a British vessel, and Great Britain resents the seizure by an angry gun, or even by an angry note? Those who can influence the future conduct of the Administration in this critical emergency will do well straightway to bestir themselves and look carefully into the situation. These are a few of the more important facts:

On the 2d of March two years ago, President Cleveland approved the law releasing the Secretary of the Treasury from direct responsibility to Congress for correctly defining "the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea," and putting the duty on the President instead. Nineteen days thereafter President Harrison issued a proclamation warning all persons against entering those waters to violate section 1956 of the Revised Statutes, and threatening to arrest and punish all persons or vessels "engaged in any violation of the laws of the United States in said waters."

He did not describe the waters by metes and bounds of latitude and longitude. He probably sent our revenue cutters into Bering Sea with vague orders to execute the laws, leaving the officers of those vessels to discover as best they could "the dominion of the United States in the waters of Bering Sea." Canadian customs officers, charged with the duty of clearing vessels for fishing in Bering Sea, may reasonably have assumed that, as our Congress had refused to interpret the laws of 1868 and 1870 as the Alaska Commercial Company sought, the President would not undertake to police all of Bering Sea east of the boundary prescribed in the Russian treaty as embracing the islands ceded to us, except as regarded American citizens. But what happened in 1889? The *Triumph* was seized on July 4, the *Black Diamond* and *Favorite* on July 11, the *Minnie* on July 15, the *Juanita* on July 31, the *Pathfinder* on August 27, and the *Ariel* and *Lily* about that time, and the *Sayward* was ordered off on July 11. All those seizures of British vessels were made outside of the marine league, and a great distance from any land. No seizures had been made in 1888, although all of those vessels, and fourteen other Canadian vessels, were in 1888 engaged in killing seals in the same waters, averaging an annual catch of about 3,000 skins each. Besides them, there were nearly as many American vessels. Up to 1886 there were no seizures; the first three seized in that year were released by President Cleveland, and Congress had refused in 1889 to condemn the release when asked by the Alaska Commercial Company.

In December of that year Secretary Windom invited proposals for a new lease of our Pribyloff Islands, but made no definition of the area of "adjacent waters." On the seventh of the next month Senator Plumb asked the Senate to request the Treasury not to make a new lease till a full report had been made by the Treasury in respect to the subject; but, nevertheless, early in March a new lease was given to a new company, of which Mr. D. O. Mills is President.

Late in August, 1889, Lord Salisbury instructed the British Legation at Washington to see Mr. Blaine at once in regard to the Harrison seizures of that year; to remind him that assurances had been given, through Mr. Phelps, that no further interference should take place with British ships in Bering Sea at a distance from shore, pending the general discussion of the issues; and to add that such seizures (which her Majesty's Government could not permit) "will hinder a settlement." Mr. Edwardes found Mr. Blaine at Bar Harbor and delivered to him the message. He replied that he had "no official communication" reporting the seizures, but that he would at Washington discuss with Sir Julian the questions presented. On September 12, 1889, Mr. Edwardes asked Mr. Blaine when a reply could be expected to England's request that the President put a stop to the seizures, and Mr. Blaine answered that "a categorical response is impracticable." On November 24, 1889, Mr. Blaine and Sir Julian met to open the discussion foreshadowed by Mr. Blaine at Bar Harbor. The former began with the remark that the seizures of 1889 "had been *effected* by the Treasury" under the belief that they were "warranted by the act of Congress and the proclamation of the President." Sir Julian replied that such seizures appeared like an assertion of "*mare clausum*." Mr. Blaine answered that the United States "had not *officially* asserted such a claim," and, therefore, "it was unnecessary to discuss it." Sir Julian rejoined that the seizures were not justified either by the statute or by the proclamation. Finally, it was agreed in the course of the conversation that, on a subsequent day, they two, aided by the Canadian Minister of Marine, should proceed to inquire whether or not the fur-seal species is in danger of extermination by what goes on in Bering Sea, and whether there is need of a "close season."

On January 22, 1890 (dates are important), before the negotiators had come together again, and while the only issue was one of fact in respect to physical data, Mr. Blaine suddenly flung into the arena, by a note to Sir Julian, the *contra bonos mores* contention, insisting that "the law of the sea" cannot be "perverted to justify acts immoral in themselves," like killing fur seals. At the next meeting of the negotiators, Mr. Blaine submitted such evidence as he had to show that open-sea fur-seal killing is diminishing seal life and is *contra bonos mores*. Canada controverted it by counter evidence tending to show that there were seals enough for everybody, and our Pribyloff lessees were only really worried by the peril of a reduced price of the skins, and making the fur unfashionable in London and Paris. The divergence of opinions and the contradiction of testimony were so unmanageable that Mr. Blaine said to Sir Julian, on March 12, 1890, that a solution by him of the problem of fact was hopeless, and asked for an English plan. Then, on April 29, Sir Julian submitted his draft treaty. Canada did not like it, but accepted it. Mr. Blaine, instead of debating the plan with his associates, and seeking then and there to modify its terms in our interest, abruptly brought the discussion to an end.

The only pending question, it must be kept in mind, was whether or not any restrictions on pelagic sealing were then necessary for the preservation of the fur-seal species; and, if necessary, the character of such restrictions. Three weeks later Mr. Blaine, having made no definite reply to his colleagues, took the British plan to the Cabinet. The New York newspapers of the 23d of May and thereabouts described what happened. President Harrison said in his next annual message that Sir Julian's proposal was rejected because defective in "*form*." On the 22d of that month the New York newspapers reported that, at a Cabinet council, it had been decided to order our revenue cutters not to capture Canadian vessels and take them to Sitka for forfeiture, but to seize the skins, dismantle the vessels, and turn them loose. Sir Julian went forthwith to see Mr. Blaine, and remonstrated with him for such orders pending negotiations and before any reply had been given to the British proposal of arbitration. Mr. Blaine said "the press could not be controlled." He inveighed in a violent way against the British plan. He said there "would be no seals without the seal islands." He generally lost control of his temper, and ended by telling Sir Julian that he (Blaine) "did not think we should ever agree as to the *form* of questions to be submitted to arbitration." He did not deny the dismantling orders.

On May 22, 1890, Lord Salisbury replied to Mr. Blaine's *contra bonos mores* note of January 22, 1890. Seven days thereafter Lord Salisbury cabled to Sir Julian that his report of the brusque conversation on the 22d instant, in which Mr. Blaine had not denied or explained the dismantling orders, had been laid before the Queen, and Sir Julian was directed to solemnly warn Mr. Blaine of the consequences of the contemplated interference with British vessels. On May 29 Mr. Blaine replied to the communication of protest, but said nothing of dismantling vessels and seizing skins, and then came Mr.

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Blaine's long note of June 30, 1890. On that date Sir Julian replied to Mr. Blaine's of May 29 complaining that Lord Salisbury abruptly closed the negotiations in 1888 because "the Canadian Government objected," and that he "assigned no other reason whatever." Sir Julian called Mr. Blaine's attention to the following statement made to Lord Salisbury by Mr. Phelps, the United States Minister in London, on the 3d of April, 1888, and which was recorded in a despatch of the same date to her Majesty's Minister at Washington. "Under the peculiar political circumstances of America at this moment," said Mr. Phelps, "with a general election impending, it would be of little use, and indeed hardly practicable, to conduct any negotiation to its issue before the election had taken place."

That was more than six months before the November voting. Nothing has intervened since last July to relieve the tension. President Harrison and Mr. Blaine have put the country into a *cul de sac*, out of which retreat will be unpleasant and unpopular. It is fortunately in the power of the Supreme Court to rescue the nation out of the blunders of such "magnetic" and *contra bonos mores* diplomacy, and avert the mortification for self-respecting men which will attend either an order to our revenue cutters not to seize outside the marine league, or a renewal by Mr. Blaine of negotiations for a close season on the lines which the Cabinet rejected a year ago in such an irrational way.

THE FASSETT REPORT.

THE Fassett Committee has made a report which is filled with both valuable suggestions and information. Most of the topics touched on merit separate and careful discussion. The central idea is the extension of home rule for cities by means both of a constitutional amendment and of a general law. The constitutional amendment is "to protect cities against the power of individuals to appeal to the Legislature, and to protect the Legislature from the necessity of entertaining such appeals, by restricting its power to legislation by general laws." The general law is to furnish a plan of government "for all cities in the State, whereby larger powers shall be granted to local authorities and the Legislature correspondingly relieved." These suggestions are to meet two of the four "chief difficulties which underlie the government of cities in this State." The other two are the absence of any machinery for supplying the Legislature and the people with statistical information touching "the general condition of the government of cities," and "the subordination of city business to the exigencies of State and national politics."

We have no doubt that, as a piece of diagnosis of municipal difficulties, the foregoing is perfectly correct, even if it be not entirely new. It was all set forth with much fulness in the report of the Tilden Municipal Commission, with which, in fact, this report expresses concurrence, except on one point. But the report has the defect which characterizes nearly every official document that deals with the problem of city government, as it is now presented to us in this State, in that it assumes that the evils described can be effectually cured by some sort of new legislation.

For instance, it proposes a "general law" regulating the government of cities in order to prevent special legislation at the instance of individuals with sinister aims. This would be an excellent suggestion if our Legislature were a permanent body of serious-minded and well-informed men bent on the maintenance of good government. As a matter of fact, it is, at every session, largely composed of new men, who look on their service at Albany as a sort of "lark," combined with a chance of making a little money for themselves or their district, and pass bills of every description without the slightest regard to their effect, near or remote, on the general welfare. What chance would there be in such a body that a general law would escape modification for two sessions in succession? Judging by experience, not the smallest. Its existence would give the individual seeking special legislation a little more trouble, but would not discourage him in the least. Having secured the necessary "pulls" and backing, he would go to Albany with the draft of a bill providing that section —— of the General Laws should be altered "so as to read as follows," and he would get it carried with no more pains than he has to take now in getting what he wants. The indignant protests of the publicists who relied on "the general law" would excite much merriment.

The fourth difficulty pointed out by the Committee really contains or covers all the others, viz., "the subordination of city business to the exigencies of State and national politics." On this the Committee ought to have expended far more time and space. This is the *fons et origo malorum*, but no man in public life likes to discuss it thoroughly, because, if he did, it would bring him at once upon the fundamental fact of all-municipal trouble—the mental attitude of the majority of voters towards municipal affairs. All discussion of municipal government which assumes that this is what it ought to be, or that, if wrong, it can be righted by some new act of the Legislature, is really futile. Right-minded men can make almost any form of popular government produce public comfort and content. Wrong-minded men can make the very best form of popular government dangerous to property and order. The reason why city business is subordinated to the exigencies of State and national politics is simply that the bulk of the voters either desire it, or care nothing about it. No rearrangement of the State laws or Constitution can prevent this. The curious and absurd junta by whom we are now ruled were put in office, in the teeth of the clearest evidence of their unfitness, last fall. The reason it was done was, that the majority either cared more about the effect of Grant's reelection on national politics than about its effect on "city business," or else did not care a rush about its effect on either.

What this means is, that the effort to improve municipal government is moral rather than political work — persuasion rather than legislation. The true causes of our municipal degradation are three in number: the large foreign, ignorant, and corrupt vote controlled by Tammany Hall; the determination of a large body of intelligent and educated voters of both parties to use municipal elections, at any cost, to affect Federal elections and legislation; the selfish indifference of a large body of the well-to-do about all local interests. Now we affirm, positively, that if the Laughlin amendment were adopted separating municipal from State and Federal elections, so as to diminish the temptation to use the former to affect the latter, and the voters voted at municipal elections with a single eye to municipal needs, using business tests to determine the fitness of candidates, we should have as good government in this city as any change in the charter could give us. We affirm with equal confidence that in default of this state of mind on the part of the voters all amendatory legislation will be useless. "Rend your hearts and not your charters" should now be the motto of every municipal reformer.

THE DEPOPULATION OF THE RURAL DISTRICTS.

A PRECISE separation of the rural from the urban and semi-urban population can be made only in those two States, viz., New Hampshire and Massachusetts, whose population by minor civil divisions has been announced by the Census Office. The population by counties of all the States has, however, been made public. A comparison of these county figures with the approximately correct statements of the population of all cities of over 10,000 inhabitants, furnished by the Census officials to the newspapers, shows that it is not in New England alone that the rural population is less to-day than it was ten years ago. In considerable sections of every State (West Virginia excepted), north of the southern boundaries of Virginia and Tennessee and east of the Mississippi, and in the States of Iowa and Minnesota west of that river, there are more or less extensive tracts which have fewer inhabitants, outside of the corporate limits of cities having in 1890 a population of 10,000 or upwards, than they had a decade ago.

From Schoodic Lake, on the eastern borders of Maine, to Decatur, Ala., is about thirteen hundred miles as the crow flies. It would be possible, in going from one of these points to another, to travel nine miles in every ten through counties the population of each of which, outside the bounds of their cities, has decreased in the interval between the tenth and eleventh censuses. From the New Brunswick border to the western line of Livingston County, New York, the only county not showing a decrease through which it would be necessary to pass, would be Sagadahoc County, Maine. After having crossed Allegany, Cattaraugus, and Chautauqua Counties, New York, each of which has a larger population than in 1880, the route through the counties with dimi-

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nishing rural population could be resumed and uninterruptedly continued, except while crossing a corner of Butler County, Ohio, and while passing through Allen County, Kentucky, and Macon County, Tennessee.

The inhospitable soil of New England is usually assigned as one of the principal reasons for the desertion of its smaller country towns. Such a cause does not exist in New York; yet, outside of the cities of over 10,000 inhabitants, the State of New York above Harlem River has 13,000 less population than it had in 1880. Of the fifty-five counties into which the mainland of New York is divided, thirty-four have fewer inhabitants outside of their cities than they had when the tenth census was taken. There has been an increase in the nine western counties, in Westchester, Rockland, and Orange Counties near New York city, and in five of the counties lying wholly or partially in the northern wilderness, so that the decrease has been most marked in the rich and fertile counties of the central portion of the State. The same causes which have led to the falling off in the population of rural New York have operated in the adjoining counties of northwestern New Jersey and northeastern Pennsylvania, in the former of which the Counties of Sussex, Warren, and Hunterdon, and in the latter those of Susquehanna, Wayne, Monroe, and Pike, show a decline in population.

The rapid growth of the many smaller manufacturing towns and villages scattered over the two States last named is probably the reason why no such general and extensive decrease of extra-urban population as is apparent from the county statistics of New York can be detected in them. In northwestern Pennsylvania, in the Counties of Erie, Crawford, Mercer, Venango, Armstrong, and Clarion, begins another tract with diminishing rural population. The tract extends with scarcely a break diagonally across Ohio and southeastern Indiana, and through central Kentucky and Tennessee, until it terminates in northern Alabama.

Of the eighty-eight counties of Ohio, thirty-six outside of the cities have lost population. Of these thirty-six, thirty-three are comprised in one tract of very irregular outline extending from the Pennsylvania line, a short distance south of Lake Erie, to the Ohio River, a few miles above Cincinnati. The greater portion of this tract is situated south of the fortieth parallel. Of the thirty-three counties which lie wholly or in greater part in this portion of the State, twenty-three have less population than they had ten years ago. Omitting Hamilton County (which contains Cincinnati), the population of this entire section of Ohio, outside the corporate limits of the cities of ten thousand inhabitants, is six thousand less than in 1880.

Not quite so large a proportion of the area of Indiana shows a diminishing population. Of the ninety-two counties, however, twenty-seven have, outside of the cities, a smaller population than in 1880. More than four-fifths, or twenty-two, of these counties lie in the southern half of the State, and principally in its southeastern corner, where only Hamilton County separates them from the Ohio group of diminishing counties. Of the eighteen Indiana counties south of the fortieth parallel and east of the eighty-sixth meridian, thirteen have lost population in the decade; and the eighteen taken together have, if their cities be excluded, fifteen thousand less inhabitants than when the tenth census was taken. For some reason, the majority of the Ohio River counties in both Ohio and Indiana show a diminished population. Out of the twenty-seven counties of Ohio and Indiana lying along the Ohio River, thirteen have decreased in rural population. A similar though less marked tendency manifests itself on the southern or Kentucky side of the river, in which, out of twenty-one counties lying opposite Ohio or Indiana, ten have less population than they had ten years ago. Twenty-seven out of the one hundred and nineteen counties of Kentucky are less populous than they were a decade since. As already stated, ten of these are along the Ohio River, and the remaining seventeen extend across the centre of the State to the Tennessee line.

In Tennessee only one-sixth of the counties, or sixteen out of ninety-seven, show a loss, after allowance has been made for the changes in county boundaries. Most of these are in middle Tennessee, and form a continuation (with a slight break just south of the Kentucky boundary) of the great belt of declining counties which extends from Lake Erie to the Tennessee. Limestone County, Alabama, forms the southern extremity of this tract.

In southern Michigan, and extending into the two northeasternmost counties of Indiana, is another but much less extensive "area of depression." Of the eighty-four counties of the State, seventeen, all in the southern peninsula, show a loss. Sixteen of these seventeen are among the twenty-eight counties lying wholly or partially south of the forty-third parallel. The remaining county, Montcalm, showing a loss, lies immediately north of this parallel and adjoins the other retrograding counties.

But eight of the sixty-eight counties of Wisconsin have experienced a loss of population. Of these, five—Ozaukee, Sheboygan, Washington, Dodge, and Fond Du Lac—lie together in the eastern portion of the State, to the north of Milwaukee. The other three form the northeastern portion of perhaps the most interesting of all these areas of decreasing population. This area extends along both banks of the Mississippi and for a considerable distance inland. On the east or left bank it begins at the mouth of the Wisconsin River, and stretches southward to the Kaskaskia, with an irregular depth usually of between fifty and a hundred miles back from the river. It includes the three southernmost counties of Wisconsin and that portion of the State of Illinois lying west of the eighty-ninth meridian and north of the thirty-eighth parallel. In this section of Illinois are included the whole or the larger part of forty-nine of its one hundred and two counties. Of these, thirty-three show a loss of rural population, and the entire forty-nine, taken together, with the three southwestern counties of Wisconsin, have about 26,000 fewer inhabitants than in 1880. The area of this tract on the east bank is over 30,000 square miles. On the west or right bank of the river it begins further north in Minnesota, at the Cannon River, and includes the seven southeastern counties of Minnesota. It extends southward to the southern boundary of Iowa. Its western boundary is usually in the neighborhood of the ninety-third meridian, although in some places it is a good deal to the east and in others as much to the west of that line. Taking, however, the section of country bounded by the Cannon River on the north, the Missouri line on the south, the Mississippi River on the east, and the ninety-third meridian on the west, we have an area of some 28,000 square miles, including seven counties in Minnesota and forty-three in Iowa, of which all the seven in the former State and twenty-six of the forty-three in the latter show a decrease, the net loss being about 24,000. On both sides of the river this tract includes portions of four States, and comprises some 58,000 square miles, or nearly as much as all New England; and the net decrease in population outside of the cities is about 50,000. The decrease in Iowa is especially noticeable, both because of the relatively large proportion of the State over which the decrease extends, including thirty-three out of its ninety-nine counties, the frequently high percentage of the decrease, reaching, as it does in some counties, 15 per cent. or more, and the comparatively recent date at which the State has been settled.

Of the South Atlantic States, only Maryland and Virginia show any noteworthy decrease, although there are a number of counties scattered through the States of North Carolina and Georgia in which there has been a loss in population. Of the twenty-three counties in Maryland, nine have fallen off. The most noticeable decrease is in the four southern counties of the Western Shore, the loss in these four counties footing up 5,500. In one of them (Charles County, on the Potomac River below Washington), the shrinkage has amounted to 18 per cent., and the county now has but 75 per cent. of the population it had a century ago. The rich agricultural regions contained in the Counties of Washington and Frederick, in western Maryland, and in those of Cecil, Kent, and Queen Anne's, on the eastern shore, exhibit a similar phenomenon. In Virginia the losses are confined entirely to the counties east of the Blue Ridge. Every one of the thirty-one counties west of that range, as well as all of the counties of West Virginia, have increased. Of the sixty-nine counties east of the mountains, almost exactly one-half (or thirty-four) show a decrease, which has, however, not been as general in the tide-water region as in the midland and the Piedmont sections of the State. Of the eleven counties lying along the eastern slope of the Blue Ridge, no less than nine have lost population.

From the data even now available, it is evident that the strictly rural population is

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decreasing in many extensive portions of the most fertile land in the Union. When we can separate the population of the towns of between 2,000 and 10,000 inhabitants from that of the rural districts proper, unquestionably the decrease will appear to be still more widely extended in area and proportionately greater in amount. Assuming that ten, twenty, or thirty years ago any particular region was cultivated as closely as it is to-day, a decrease of its rural population is inevitable, for not only will the improvement in agricultural machinery enable the same work to be done by fewer hands, but the improvement in the means of transportation and the lessening of its cost, the greater and greater development of the factory system and the replacement of the small factory by the large, will compel more and more of the mechanics who formerly lived among the farming population to migrate to the cities and manufacturing towns.

A greater or less decrease in the rural population of many portions of the country is therefore to be expected. Whether the census does not make that decrease appear to be greater than it is, may, perhaps, be an open question. Most of the complaints as to the omissions of the census have come from the cities of the country, and have been largely inspired by civic pride or vanity. It is not improbable that the omissions were really greater in the rural districts. In the cities, an average man, by working hard, could make, as enumerator, a moderate—although a very moderate—wage. In the country, the best of men frequently could not. At the rates paid, and with the enormous number of questions, especially on the agricutural schedule, to be asked, good enumerators in one of the most thickly settled agricultural regions in the Eastern States could frequently not make more than a dollar and a half or two dollars a day, and out of that they were required to furnish their own team and feed it and themselves. Under such circumstances the temptation to skim over their districts and to slight remote corners of them, must have been too much for the not too Spartan virtue of the small politicians who largely made up the enumerators.

TRUCK-FARMING.

For the first time the industry known as truck-farming has been made a subject of census investigation. Within the past twenty years this infant industry has grown to be one whose extent may be gauged by some of the figures presented in a census bulletin. Upwards of $100,000,000 are invested in truck-farms, aggregating over half a million acres of land, the annual products of which (after paying freight and commissions) amount to $76,517,155, and require the services of 230,893 persons, aided by 75,866 horses and mules, and $8,971,206 worth of farm implements and machinery; the income of this comparatively new traffic, after paying for labor, fertilizers, and seeds, is estimated at $52,000,000.

A distinction is made between truck-farming and what is known as market-gardening. The latter specialty belongs to small holdings within easy driving distance of cities and towns, while truck-farming is defined as the production of green vegetables on tracts remote from market, the truck-farmer being dependent on water and rail transportation for the delivery, and on commission-men for the sale, of his products. For statistical convenience, the country was divided into twelve districts—New England, New York and Philadelphia, Peninsular, Norfolk, Baltimore, South Atlantic, Mississippi Valley, Southwest, Central, Northwest, Mountain, Pacific Coast. Previous to 1860, Long Island, New Jersey, Delaware, and southern Illinois were the chief truck centres, but to-day over 75 per cent. of our vegetables come from the South Atlantic States, the Mississippi Valley, the celery districts of Ohio and Michigan, and from the Pacific Coast. A very considerable portion of the truck products consumed in our great cities is grown from 500 to 1,500 miles away; and favored localities, more particularly at the South, devote their energies to the growth of special varieties of green food, for which there is a steady demand throughout the year. "Late in the fall and early in the spring, Florida and the Lower Mississippi Valley supply the Eastern and central cities, and California those of the far West and mountain section, until the advancing season, *at the rate of thirteen miles a day*, starts the growth and consequent supply up along the Atlantic Coast and the great Mississippi Valley, when the full season of midsummer in the North continues the supply, until winter frosts once more compel a return to the South, where a fresh crop awaits the demand of the market."

New potatoes, cabbages, cauliflowers, and tomatoes are as yet the only vegetables shipped from California so far east as St. Louis, Kansas City, and Chicago, and then only in small quantities to meet a partial failure of crops in the Mississippi Valley and Florida. But the law of natural monopoly has shown itself in the past, and cannot fail in the future. With rapid development of railroads come fast trains and lower freight and express charges, and these artificial advantages will enable California, with a fertility of soil that produces every green thing to perfection, and a climate largely free from the winter frost that occasionally proves so disastrous at the South, to compete sharply for much of the truck trade beyond the Mississippi. It has been only a few years since the truck-farmers of the Norfolk and Baltimore districts have successfully divided patronage with the older and more Northern districts, yet already Norfolk growers grumble over signs of a shifting trade, because growers in Florida are severely pushing their Maryland and Virginia rivals. An estimate made in 1879 placed the value of the vegetable and berry crops shipped from Norfolk at $1,757,645, while for the census year ending June, 1890, the value of the vegetable crop shipments alone rose to $5,773,467; in addition there were handled at the same port nearly 900,000 melons.

"The average melon fields of the South Atlantic States yield about 400 salable melons per acre; 1,200 will load a car, which will sell at the North anywhere from $150 to $275, leaving net returns from nothing up to $150 per car. One gentleman in Dawson County, Georgia, reports making a net profit of $1,700 from thirty-two acres in 1889." Over 114,000 acres are devoted to melon-raising in the United States. A crop that has gained in value of late years in the Southern districts is sweet potatoes; these now return a handsome profit, in some cases as high as $100 an acre on farms which formerly barely met expenses. One owner of 300 acres near Cape Charles, Va., cleared $20,000 last year from his truck, or over 25 per cent. on the investment; such a return was only rendered possible by recent favorable railroad facilities. The small section, Mobile County, Alabama, shipped during the past three years $1,629,964 worth of truck; other Southern distributing points, such as Savannah, Charleston, Jacksonville, etc., supply equally significant returns.

In the South Atlantic and Mississippi Valley districts many freedmen are engaged in this industry; they own their own farms and teams, and successfully rival their white neighbors. Some of the special reports filled out by these negro truckers prove thorough grasp of their business on both the practical and commercial sides. One, selected for print, shows an average net income per acre varying from $75 for cabbages and $50 for asparagus down to $25 for watermelons, a crop which is more prolific, but less remunerative, at the South than in other districts. The remarks appended to one report are a good answer to much cheap talk about the negro of the South: "Total number of acres, 47; value per acre, from $100 to $150; number of men employed during trucking season, 5; average wages per day, 65 cents; number of horses and other animals employed, 4; value of implements used, $75; total amount paid for labor annually, $425; total amount paid for fertilizers, $1,425; total gross income, $4,627; total net income, $2,423."

The leading classes of vegetables raised by truckers—in contradistinction to market-gardeners—are as follows, ranking in acreage in the order named: Watermelons, cabbages, peas, asparagus, melons (other than watermelons), sweet potatoes, tomatoes, spinach, Irish potatoes, celery, and string beans. The net returns from the same crop, in the different localities, vary materially. For instance, the highest net profit per acre reported for tomatoes is $300 in the New England, the lowest ($20) in the Northwest district. The New England district also returns $2,000 per acre as profit on cucumbers (this enormous profit results from their culture under glass at great expense), as against $25 in the Norfolk district. On the whole, it seems that while the Northern districts report a larger return per acre for certain of the truck staples—such as beets, celery, spinach, and tomatoes—the South shows a high average profit on all varieties, with a larger aggregate of land and labor employed in trucking. In a word, the centres of truck-farming are moving southward and westward.

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A SOUTHERN ARCADIA.

BELLE HAVEN, Va., April 6, 1891.

A FEW hours by train or boat from New York or Philadelphia or Baltimore bring the traveller to the oft-mentioned and seldom-visited Eastern Shore of the Chesapeake Bay, haunted of oystermen, beloved of crack shots, but as yet innocent alike of summer boarders and of tourists. It is a region not now discovered for the first time. Cabot may have sighted it in his voyage of 1497. Cape Charles, its southernmost point, was in 1607 named for Prince Charles, later Charles I.; and the picturesque names of some of the towns, as Princess Anne, perpetuate English history. In this district, attractive from its history to the student, from its climate and light soil to the pedestrian, I have been spending the week in spring which seems intended for the exploration of out-of-the-way corners of the eastern sea-board.

Small as is the region—the area is but six thousand square miles—it has been a field of contention among three States. From the Eastern Shore Delaware was carved out of Maryland, and the southermost point was most unjustly added to Virginia. The two Virginian counties of Northampton and Accomac occupy Cape Charles, a peninsula about seventy-five miles long and perhaps ten miles wide upon an average, but so penetrated by creeks both from the bay and the ocean side that only a narrow isthmus of solid ground is left between. Through this backbone of the cape runs the railroad from Wilmington to the Norfolk ferry; but let not the passenger suppose that he has seen the Eastern Shore as he is whirled rapidly through swamps and thick woods, with fleeting views of distant farm-houses. The railroad at present occupies the least populous part of the peninsula, and touches no old town in Virginia. He who would see the country must follow the roads. The side paths are firm for walking, and would probably answer for the cyclist; and driving is everywhere practicable. Nowhere does one find long stretches of unbroken forests; the country is fertile, and the blossoming peach trees fill the eye with beauty.

One does not go to the Eastern Shore to see fruit trees so much as to see the people and their ways. As you start out from the little harbor of Cape Charles and follow the clean shell-road north past the high fragrant pines, or under overarching trees, there is at first little to suggest that you are not in New England. Presently you find yourself in the midst of those sociable little woolly black pigs for whose benefit the miles of whitewashed fences and the more numerous miles of Virginia worm fences of pine rails seem to have been provided; and, as you advance, a new quarter of the world opens up.

The houses are novel. One is, of course, struck by the outside chimneys of the older places and by the numerous small outhouses which the Southern farmer seems to think essential. Old houses are rare, and I have nowhere found such a colonial mansion as may be seen in almost any seaport town in New England. The broad Southern verandas, too, are almost wanting; but one soon comes to recognize as characteristic of the region certain well-built houses with brick ends and graceful gambrel roofs, embellished with rows of dormer windows. Many of the older houses have been built over, and the great chimneys have been demolished to make foundations and the inner chimneys for close stoves, which are unfortunately taking the place of the generous old wood fires. Occasionally, though very rarely, there are handsome brick houses; and everywhere one sees a peculiar brick arch, supporting a solid platform, which is roofed by a portico supported by four white pillars. In but one place have I discovered a church which seemed to be more than thirty years old. This was at the village of Pungoteague. It is built of large red brick laid in Flemish bond. The projecting ends are adorned with a coarse gray glaze, so that the front of the building presents a pleasing tesselation of gray and red. I had no opportunity to learn its history. The villages are composed chiefly of new buildings, but are not remarkable for neatness. It has not been my fortune to see the inside of many of the houses. One of them which I entered was a comfortless place except for the great corner brick fire-place. Even there I was most interested in the negro family which occupied it and had furnished it with a curious medley, including a handsome old mahogany bureau.

More than all else the negroes remind one that he is in a different region. In Northampton County they are 6,000 to 5,000 white; in Accomac they are but 11,000 to 17,000; but the negroes whom one meets upon the road are far more numerous than this proportion would suggest. They are of all sorts, from the trim preacher in his well-found top-buggy to the boy driving a discouraged little two-year-old steer to one of the big carts which the negroes much affect. From young and old, from the fat old mammy, with her basket of provisions and her head wrapped in a bandanna, to the little school-children, one meets with perfect civility and politeness. Nowhere have I seen more genuine and unaffected good-will, kindliness, and courtesy than among these colored people. Only once did I meet with a case of that stupidity which the reader of Olmsted's books would expect to find. It was in a stalwart oysterman in his big boots, of whom I asked the distance to Eastville. "'Bout seven miles," said he; "'bout seven miles. Yes, I could walk there in an hour, sure. Yes, I could get there by four o'clock, sure." It was then half-past one, and the distance, with which he was familiar, was perhaps three miles. I have always been inclined to distrust the stories of the gayety of the negro race, but, in passing along the roads, again and again was my ear charmed by the song of men and women in the fields. Occasionally a courtship was going on, shouted half across a potato-field; and once I saw a circle of little children gathered together with their heads covered, singing in weird fashion—perhaps playing camp-meeting.

Throughout the sixty miles' walk everywhere new negro houses abounded; not cabins, but substantial weather-boarded houses, often two stories in height, and each surrounded by a little patch of land. It was the universal testimony that most of the negroes bought land and built upon it. One white man said they were able to do so because so many of them received pensions from the Government. It is certain from the testimony of the whites that on the Eastern Shore the race problem has been almost completely adjusted. In a region in which slavery flourished for nearly two centuries and a half, the races now live together on terms of amity and friendship, of mutual respect and good-will. The social separation is very sharp, and almost all the trading is done by whites; the only industry, even in the villages, in which, so far as I could see, colored men engaged, was the establishment of low bar-rooms. Race difficulties simply do not exist; the negroes almost invariably vote the "Union ticket"—that is, the Republican—and Northampton County usually elects Republican officers. Few negroes are sufficiently educated to take office, and one lady bitterly complained of the presumption of a young negro who had succeeded in obtaining admission to the bar and was likely to put himself forward for "Commonwealth"—that is, for county prosecuting attorney. The general testimony was that the negroes sent their children to school better than the whites, and that the steady ones were excellent citizens. There was some complaint that negro laborers could not be depended upon to work more than a few days a week, enough to keep body and soul together. Farm laborers are in great demand, and receive ten to twelve dollars a month and board.

Perhaps these happy conditions are due to the great prosperity of the whole region. Tobacco seems almost an unknown product; the dependence of the country is upon "early trucks"—that is, vegetables for the city markets—sweet potatoes, and especially "round" potatoes. Large quantities of these products go to Boston, with which there is a certain relation of travel: I met several whites and blacks who had lived in New England. The white men are hardly distinguishable from the similar class in New England or Middle-State towns. Many of them are established as traders, and the stores throughout the peninsula are very numerous. Except by a difference of accent, the loafer, the dapper clerk, and the all-pervading drummer are not distinguishable from the same classes in New England. The farmers—for there are no "planters" on the Eastern Shore; the word farmer seems to be universal—show less energy. But the simple fact that in my journeyings I have yet to see a single ruined house, and can remember but two dwellings which seemed to be unoccupied, shows how profitable must be their calling. Land is worth half as much as similar land would bring in northern Ohio. It is said that a million dollars was received from the "round" potato crop in Accomac County last year. The result is a remarkable growth, not only of the new railroad villages, but of the old towns like Onancock. Another evidence of prosperity is the excellent living which the country affords. Such oysters, such poultry, such potatoes, such Maryland biscuit as the hotel at Belle Haven affords are not to be had in any city market. On the other hand, the guest at the Grand Central Hotel at Onancock sees something of the old slavery times in the two slatternly, ragged, and unpleasing negro girls who serve the table with somewhat indigestible food.

In no part of the Union have I seen greater evidences of prosperity and content than on the peninsula of Cape Charles. The races live side by side without friction and with pleasant relations; wealth increases from year to year, and is widely distributed; no foreigners have come in to create or to participate in these advantages. Such as it is, the Eastern Shore of Virginia is a bit of American soil peopled only by Americans.

ALBERT BUSHNELL HART.

IRELAND ON THE CENSUS DAY.

DUBLIN, April 6, 1891.

WITH time, we realize more fully the extraordinary character of the split that crushed Irish hopes and shattered the Irish party in the early days of last December. There is nothing similar recorded in history. When great differences have arisen, there have always been some previous indications, some tendencies of mind, some seeds of thought already sown, some sectional interests already apparent,

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helping to enlighten as to the reason of the course taken by each man. In this instance, persons who had worked together harmoniously in a common cause for a lifetime, became instantaneously bitterly opposed to each other. Result as it may, this divergence adds an unexpected sombreness to life, seeming to undermine all firm standing as to bases of belief and judgment and political thought. After the divorce revelations, Mr. Parnell's infamous abuse of his colleagues, his attack on Mr. Gladstone, his language at Kilkenny and Sligo, I could hardly be more surprised at the adherence of many excellent individuals to Mr. Parnell than I should be if they had attempted to justify petty larceny—some, indeed, have gone so far as to defend and excuse the late brutal assault on Mr. Healy. But such is the fact, another of the numerous, unexpected, inscrutable developments marking Irish history, in which nothing appears certain except disappointment and unrest. The present contest is now fully joined, and there can be no appreciable change in party relations until after the general election. Not even the release of O'Brien and Dillon in August will make any material difference. Their undecided action at Boulogne has considerably lessened their importance. While they retain the respect and love of their fellow-countrymen, and while their adherence to either side would still doubtless be a source of strength, and their retirement from the scene would gratify the adherents of the Government, the preponderating influence they might have exercised early in the struggle is no longer theirs.

The National party started under serious disadvantages. The organization of Ireland was in the hands of the Parnellites. The daily paper that for a generation had led and mirrored National sentiment was unreservedly with Parnell. Perhaps no journal in either England or the United States occupied the same commanding position in proportion to its circulation as the *Freeman's Journal* in Ireland. Catholic and a clerical organ, it has now committed itself to a life-and-death struggle with the Church. While the Parnellite members adopted a course that excluded them from all the privileges attendant on London political life in alliance with a great English party, and most of the anti-Parnellites seemed to deprive themselves of all means of living, the *Freeman's Journal* adopted a course that has called into the field a powerful rival and reduced its shares from £7 to £4 10. Irishmen on this occasion cannot be accused of acting from sordid motives. It may be one of our defects that we are too little swayed by prudential considerations. Within three months a new daily paper, the *National Press*, has been started in opposition to the *Freeman's Journal*. It has secured the finest premises of any newspaper in Dublin. The machinery, second-hand, picked up on the moment, is still defective, and the staff, hastily got together, is not yet fully trained, so that the position the new daily is likely to take in the newspaper world remains uncertain. As Mr. Parnell would have had all his own way but for some such paper, the initiatory shortcomings may well be pardoned. A few days after the appearance of the *National Press*, the Irish National Federation was inaugurated at an enthusiastic and representative gathering in Dublin. It is intended to take the place of the Irish National League, now in the hands of the Parnellites. The Federation can hardly espouse the cause of coerced and evicted tenants, as did the League in its palmy days. And if, without espousing that cause, the Federation attain to anything like the former influence of the League, it will succeed in doing what no purely political organization has effected since the famine of 1846. If, as seems probable, the agrarian combinations cannot be maintained, and if the people conclude that little more directly affecting their pockets is to be gained from politics, the much-disputed question will be finally settled as to the extent to which, apart from the land, Irishmen really care for home rule.

The present is a trying ordeal. It is, however, in the interests of Truth. In spite of shouting, swaggering, and threatening, not free from violence on both sides, the way is being cleared for her to assert her supremacy. What else should we desire? Where the large funds necessary for the next general election are to come from, is a problem. The Land League ten years ago was established mainly on money drawn from the States and Australia. Beyond the maintenance on small allowances of some of the Irish Parliamentary party (a maintenance drawn chiefly, it is understood, from finances banked in Paris), election expenses in Ireland were but trifling. Mr. Parnell's nominees were invariably returned. The certainty with which they held their seats gave a peculiar force to the party. This easy state of affairs is ended. The country, never rich, lavishly supporting its own religious institutions, and having with a diminishing population almost every year raised some £30,000 or £40,000 for one political purpose or another—for Mr. Parnell, evicted tenants, legal expenses, or the establishment of a newspaper—must now be considerably impoverished. To fight the battle out fully will cost not less than £50,000 on each side. As yet, within a month, the subscription lists in the *Freeman* and the *National Press* show collections of only £1,500 and £3,500. An ominous proportion of the latter sum is from clerical contributors.

The attitude of the ascendency papers and the action of the Conservative electors at Sligo show that the Government party in Ireland is determined to throw its weight into the scale with Parnell and the Hillside men. There is no concealment regarding the alliance. The secretary of a Liberal Unionist association in Ulster lately told his near relative, a friend of mine, that if he had fifty votes, he would cast them for the Uncrowned King. This is doubtless good party tactics, but it is a course which those who profess to desire good order in Ireland would not dare to follow if they felt themselves responsible for the conduct of their own government. It is a suggestive commentary on the system under which we here live, illustrating the extent to which so many Irishmen regard politics as a mere joke, a recreation, or a means of advancing their own interests apart from all considerations of public welfare. The present juncture cannot but seriously endanger our prospects at the English polls. The violence at recent Irish elections—all unnoticed as such conduct would pass in Englishmen—the mutual implications and vilifications of the controversy, must tend to lower Irishmen in the estimation of Great Britain. Philosophically considered, in the minds of men like Gladstone, Morley, Earl Spencer, Mr. Bryce, and the writers in the *Speaker*, the necessity for home rule is more than ever apparent. But how will the subject be regarded by the average English electors, reared in anti-Irish and anti-Catholic prejudices, influenced by the Primrose League and by able and insistent witnesses from Ireland such as Mr. T. W. Russell? For the present the full combination of English and Irish home-rule advocates on English and Irish platforms appears at an end. The offices of the Irish Press Agency in Westminster are closed for want of funds, and its staff is scattered. The revulsion against political thought prevalent here, leading men to curtail their newspaper reading, and banishing Nationalist portraits from photographers' windows in our principal streets, must act with additional force on the other side of the Channel.

It is twenty-one years this spring since the home-rule agitation was started by Mr. Butt. Never during that period were there so few Protestants of standing prominently connected with the movement as there now are. The Government is improving its opportunity with consummate tact. Its adherents were never in better spirits. It claims to its account the increased contentment and prosperity resulting from the land legislation conceded by the Liberals or exacted by the Irish party. No Englishman for half a century was so popular with the classes in Ireland as is Mr. Balfour. His portrait is for sale in the leading Dublin bookseller's window, where I do not recollect ever to have seen a portrait before exposed. The success, on the whole, of his relief policy in the west is assured. He has lately given singular proof of the strength of his position, and done what a Liberal or Home-Rule Government could hardly have ventured in the face of English and northern Protestant opinion, in trying before a coercion court and imprisoning two Protestant clergymen for "obstructing the thoroughfare" by street preaching in Arklow. Yet, to the majority of Irishmen, the hatefulness of his arbitrary sway was never more apparent than at the late Cork trials of men who had been savagely batoned by the police for asserting their right to enter their own court-house at Tipperary.

During my life-time millions of square miles of desolate places have been portioned into States and colonies, and accorded by great Powers freedom and self-government; while Ireland, a fertile country, inhabited by an ancient people who have acquired influence in every other corner of the globe, is held in a condition of intolerable subjection. To-day the census of her population is taken. It will show a decrease within the last decade. It will not amount to more than half what it indicated when I was first numbered among her inhabitants. That the present diminished population is less impoverished than the former greater one, is no sufficient compensation. There is not another nation on the face of the globe that has not, within the same period, increased both in population and in comfort and riches. Let who will be content with such a state of things. Census-day brings pride and joy, or at least satisfaction, to most peoples, but to us humiliation. Well may we, as Irishmen, abhor the present system of misrule, in going over Charlemont House and seeing the perfect preparations made for the enumeration, when we reflect on the hopes that centred there one hundred years ago, on our subsequent history, and the record of decline to which it seems doomed. However, it is well to remember that if in Irish affairs hope is often cheated, the worst forebodings are generally belied. D. B.

THE MAFFIA ONCE MORE.

ROME, April 2, 1891.

THE tragedy of New Orleans makes the nature of the great Sicilian order of outlawry of more than ordinary interest, and I have taken pains to find what is the best Italian authority on the matter, so as to give a picture of it

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which cannot be put down as the outcome of foreign ignorance or prejudice. Nobody can have travelled in the island of late years in leisure without having, here and there, discovered the proofs of the insecure state of society; but in justice to the Sicilians and their perception of the advantages to be derived from making an exception to the foreign visitors in their operations, I must say that foreigners are not the victims of their illegalities, and a European traveller may go, as I have gone, through districts where the population was continually overawed by the outlaws, without the least inconvenience. The old-fashioned brigandage, which owed its terrors to the sequestration of the person and the certainty of death if the required ransom was not forthcoming, has disappeared, I believe. The single case of it in late years resulted in the capture of so many of the criminals that a repetition of it is not likely, and that form of the activity of the Maffia may be studied as historically interesting, but not as showing the laxity of Italian policing.

The Maffia is not a single, formal, and organized association like the Camorra of Naples, but a state of society, existing in every part of Sicily, which is in revolt against the law, combines in any convenient manner to defeat it, and lives on the contributions it can levy on the industrious part of the community. In certain districts it forms bands, bound together for certain forms of crime and limited to the section, and these are regulated by their statutes and pay absolute obedience to their chiefs; but the general condition of the Maffia is that of a large number of people connected by no formality, but recognizing each other by certain characteristics, forms of speech, and to a limited extent by a slang, but mainly by the general deportment, and who invariably assist each other in any undertaking, legal or illegal, and as invariably combine for the mutual defence and misleading of justice. The religion and morality of the Maffia, if it is permissible to apply the terms to the inversion of our usual acceptation of those notions, is contained in the rule of conduct known as *omertà*, a word translated by some of the writers on the subject as humility, by others as manhood, and which is thus described by Prof. Tommasi-Crudeli:

"So it has come that little by little have obtained in the habits of the entire population the principles of a special code which is called *omertà*, which establishes as the first duty of a man that of doing justice with his own hands for all injuries received, and stamps with infamy and holds up to public execration and vengeance whoever has recourse to the tribunal or aids it in its investigation. On this account even the honest populace considers it a good work to hide an assassin from justice, or refuse to give evidence against him."

With these principles pervading the population (and they have a large currency in the entire population of southern Italy), the Maffia has a soil propitious for its operations. Bonfadini, in the 'Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Condition of Sicily,' describes the Maffia as "not exactly a secret society, but the cultivation and perfection of domination directed to all evil ends; the unity—instinctive, brutal, selfish—which binds for the detriment of the State, the laws, and the regular organizations, all those individuals or social ranks who prefer to gain their livelihood and their pleasures, not by work, but by violence, cheating, and intimidation." And Franchetti, in his study of the island, 'The Economical and Administrative Condition of Sicily,' says that it is "a union of persons of every class, of every profession, of every description, who, without having any apparent regular and continuous tie, are always agreed in promoting their mutual interests, without any consideration of law, justice, or public order. It is the mediæval sentiment of one who considers himself able to provide for the protection and safety of himself and his interests by his own powers and personal influence without regard to the authorities or the laws."

The Maffia draws its profits from every transaction in which the Sicilian is interested. If an auction sale is to take place, the intending purchaser is informed by an insignificant-looking individual that either some "man" has a desire to purchase the object in question, or that if he wants it at a reasonable price he would do well to remember the poor; or by some similar injunction is notified that he must buy off the Maffia by a proportional contribution, in default of which he is outbid, but paying which he has no competitor and gets it at his own price. If the occasion is an election, the candidate of the Maffia has a swarm of clients who advise people not to oppose him, lest disagreeable things may happen, and the advice is understood. If it is a matter of a contract for some public work, the payment of a commission to the Maffia is necessary to secure the contractor from all interference or competition. The majority of the population, distrusting the power of the law to protect them against the secret action of the Maffiosi, obeys the secret injunction and preserves silence, no matter how oppressive the tyranny. In case one of the Maffia has committed a murder, or any offence of minor degree, it is the duty of the affiliated to prove an alibi, to bribe the jury or overawe it, and prevent a conviction, or, failing in this, to punish the refractory and honest juryman or witness, by killing his cattle, if he has any, burning his forest or farm-house, boycotting his business if a citizen, or finally assassinating him—for the refusal to obey the Maffia must be prevented at any cost.

The Italian governments, one after another, have proved unequal to the entire repression of this organized illegality, this State within the State, defiant of all law and measures of police. The reason is that the governments have never dared attack the "high Maffia" (for this distinction exists everywhere).

"The distinction is made between the high and the low Maffia, Maffia in bonnet and in yellow gloves; but it is relative, being the distinction between protector and protected, patron and client, him who orders and him who executes, as is shown by the following extract from a letter from the late Prince of Galati, than whom no one knew better the historic and political conditions of the island: 'Leone, Nobile, and their companions, victims of the high Maffia, are dead. To-morrow there will be new instruments and new victims. Looking over the history of Sicily, do we find a single brigand who did not die on the gallows or by a bullet? All, beginning with Giangiorgio Lancia, hanged in 1582, and ending with Leone, killed in 1877, have had violent deaths; not one has died unpunished. The high Maffia has been spared by all the governments, beginning with that of Don Arrigo Guzman, Count of Alvarez, and ending with that of Nicotera. . . . It is true that Nicotera admonished a few barons; trivial punishment, illusory penalties. The high Maffia is intact. It has thrown to the police its agents in the country, but keeps those of the city.'" (G. Alongi, 'La Maffia': Turin, 1887.)

The wealthy are Maffiosi for the protection of their estates and herds, the poor from envy and want.

"For many of the rich, to be of or acquiesce in the Maffia is, if one may believe them, a necessity. But are there not many who take it up from taste or interest? Many, and I do not know if most belong to the former or the latter. The same necessity weighs on the peasant. In fact, while he is honest and laborious he is oppressed, insulted, prevented from attaining an independence, badly or half fed, worse lodged. If, on the other hand, he commits a couple of crimes, generally with impunity (the witnesses for the accusation being few, and those for the defence many), the obscure creature of yesterday has become noted, become a man of honor. The *gabelloto* [farmer of an estate] who has always a staff, a guard of honor of proved Maffiosi, and who has always treated him as a nobody, takes him into his esteem, partly from fear, partly from an eye to his services; protects him, and often, of the mere laborer, makes a formidable champion with a salary. And so the new criminal finds himself suddenly elevated morally and financially; the crime that was for him a reprisal or a necessity, has become a virtue and a convenient habit; inducements increase, and contact with the other Maffiosi does the rest." (Alongi, *ibid.*)

The great mass of the Maffiosi are the manutengoli, those who take the passive office of hiding, feeding (if need be), and protecting from the investigations of justice, the active agents of crime. Without the manutengolo the Maffia could not exist, but with him the criminal passes the tribunal unterrified.

"His work begins in the investigations, throwing, as the saying is, 'sticks between the legs' of the judges to divert them from the clues. False witnesses, anonymous communications, articles in journals—everything is brought into action to weaken the charge or break it down; and if the magistrate be persistent and send the man to the assizes, there is a new series of evolutions and intrigues which end only with the verdict—not always conformed to justice. These begin with the examination of the jury-list, seeing who must be rejected and who accepted. With these latter all the friendly relations are employed to soften their hearts, and when these are not sufficient they are informed that the accused has many and powerful friends who would defend him *at any cost*, and if necessary *avenge* him, etc. If the accused was of importance in the Maffia, the friends added to the appeals for sympathy *for a victim of partisan hostility*, the information that he had a host of friends *ready for any measures* to save him; and those who did not feel convinced by the first plea were moved by the second, knowing that under the expression *ready for any measures* were conveyed threats of reprisal and vendettas not far away. And on this point the Maffia has given examples so terrible that no one attempts to resist. It is known that witnesses and jurymen, after an affirmative verdict, have been assassinated in broad day, even in the city." (Alongi, *ibid.*)

The trial is followed with the same care—friends in court and witnesses ready to swear to anything so that the witnesses for the accusation may be invalidated, the fabrication of false testimony being an art cultivated to the highest perfection; alibis well supported, etc.

"In this state of things, which still obtains, is it a wonder, is it a great error, if the masses attending the trials are convinced that to lie in court is not dangerous, while by offending the Maffia one risks his life? However much one may love truth and justice, however courageous one may be, the certainty of a vendetta, or even the probability of it, makes the best hesitating and reserved, the more so that with ambiguous phrases one may evade the law, keeping up appearances of legality, while, in fact, it is the Maffia which is obeyed and triumphs." (Alongi, *ibid.*)

When the Maffia is in the country, the malandrino is the chief and director of its operations. He is apparently a quiet proprietor or tradesman who never takes any part in the enterprises of brigand, highway robber, or bands of cattle-thieves, but spies the opportunity and gives information, and directs the movements of the active members of the organization. He receives the booty and sells it, and aids in every way the operations, protected by his wealth or position, and sometimes betrays his

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confederates to justice, remaining sole possessor of their hoards. He is the worst and most dangerous criminal in the Maffia.

In some parts of Sicily only do the Maffiosi form bands, with statutes, oaths, and forms of initiation. These somet mes are at war with each other, but always combine to defeat the law. These brotherhoods levy blackmail, rob, and revenge offences on their friends or company. The assessments are made, and warnings given, at first with due form and moderation; but, if not attended to, are followed by more rigorous measures.

"Before having recourse to assassination for little matters, the means of intimidation are exhausted—cutting down trees, sending crosses, etc., etc.; but when it is a question of some one suspected of watching the association or bringing it into the hands of the law, or one who has done an injury to a brother or to a rival group of the Maffia, the only and infallible means of action is murder. This even becomes sometimes a means of gain, and is let out. Anybody who has an enemy whom he wants to have put out of the way, has only to apply to the brotherhood, which, for a price varying from 50 to 500 francs, charges itself with the matter. The common method of procedure is the following: 'When the chief has tried the victim [he being absent, of course], or has recognized that his offence merits the punishment, lots are drawn for the executioner, or the job is given to a novice to prove his courage and obedience. But the work is not intrusted to him alone; he at most only takes the weapon [the gun always] from the hands of a colleague, and fires at the victim, who is sometimes unknown to him. The shot fired, the gun is passed from one to another of the associates posted at short distances, and disappears as if by enchantment, while the murderer, making a rapid turn through the by-roads, may run to the scene of the murder as if he were only a curious spectator."

One writer on the Sicilian brotherhoods (Colacino, 'La Fratellanza') says:

"In it [La Fratellanza] the purpose of robbery as an end of common gain was eliminated. La Fratellanza was not an association of robbers—attacks on property might be a mode of vendetta, since this may be accomplished even by the destruction of his property; the thirst for blood was stronger than the desire of gain. La Fratellanza neither wished to rob for greed, nor rise against property, nor attack the form of government. To bathe in the blood of the enemy or insulter, with avidity, savagely, undisturbed—this was its ideal. Its maxim was: 'Sweet is wine, but sweeter still the blood of Christians.'"

This is the testimony of Italians who have studied the condition of Sicily, and the list is long. Official reports, studies of crime, investigations of scientists, both for public information and for pure science, all accord substantially in their relations of which I have but indicated a small part—that which most imports to the people of the States where the Maffia is likely to be planted. The following from Alongi is worth remembering: "Once the first nucleus of the brotherhood is constituted, it spreads rapidly, recruiting adherents among the criminals and evil-livers of every kind. This force of expansion, given the anthropological and historical circumstances of Sicily, is frightful." W. J. S.

Correspondence.

INDEMNITY TO FOREIGNERS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: "The Italian Trouble," in the *Nation* of the 9th inst., doubtless voices the sentiment of the country as to the cash value of Italy's loss at New Orleans; also in the statement that Blaine's answer to Baron Fava "is very neat and complete, and puts the whole case in a nutshell."

However, further on in the same article the *Nation* says:

"We do not know what Mr. Blaine means when he says that 'the United States has distinctly recognized the principle of indemnity to those Italian subj cts who may have been wronged by a violation of the rights secured by the treaty with the United States of February 26, 1871.' There was no such recognition in the case of the attack on Spaniards in New Orleans in 1850 or of the attack on Chinese at Rock Springs in 1885. In the latter case an indemnity was voted, but it was expressly stated at the time that it was a matter of grace, and not of right. In other words, any acknowledgment of 'the principle' has been expressly guarded against by Mr. Webster and by Mr. Evarts and by Mr. Bayard."

I assume that "the case of the attack on Spaniards in New Orleans in 1850" refers to the excitement in the United States in 1851 over the execution of a number of American citizens by the Spanish authorities for aiding an attempted insurrection in Cuba, which, at New Orleans and Key West, culminated in mob violence against Spanish subjects.

If I understand the history of that affair correctly, while there might not have been a distinct technical recognition of "the principle," yet our own Government did "recognize" the right sufficiently "distinctly" to pay every dollar of indemnity demanded by the Spanish Minister, amounting to $83,813.70, for Spanish subjects on account of damages caused by the riots at New Orleans and Key West. It also appears that Secretary Webster sent to the President the note of the Spanish Minister demanding the indemnity, with the suggestion "that Congress be recommended to make provision for the reparation desired." (Foreign Relations of the United States, 1886, pp. 152-3-4, title China.)

This matter was brought out fully by the Chinese Minister at Washington in his correspondence with Secretary Bayard over the Rock Springs massacre. When Cheng Tsao Ju had officially presented the facts of the Rock Springs horror to Secretary Bayard, he doubtless anticipated, from prior experience of his legation, some cheap and perfunctory expressions of condolence, with a denial of liability for indemnity; for he continued, p. 103:

"With this statement I might consider my duty discharged but for the fact that this legation, having had occasion to call the attention of two of your worthy predecessors to a similar but much less bloody and disastrous event, the honorable Secretary Evarts expressed some doubts as to the legal liability of his Government to make pecuniary indemnity to the Chinese sufferers by the mob at Denver, in the State of Colorado, in 1880, and that the honorable Secretary Blaine concurred in the views of Mr. Secretary Evarts. I have, therefore, to beg the kind indulgence of your Excellency while I attempt to show why the present request for indemnification, in the opinion of my Government, ought in justice and equity to be granted, notwithstanding the views set forth in the notes of Secretary Evarts of December 30, 1880, and of Secretary Blaine of March 25, 1881. In doing this it is not my intention to either appeal to you from or to question the correctness of the interpretation of the laws of the United States as given by the distinguished jurist Mr. Evarts and confirmed by the experienced statesman Mr. Blaine. It would seem to me, however, to be just that, if the view taken by Mr. Evarts as to the obligation of the United States to make indemnity for injuries to private individuals from mob violence should be insisted upon and adhered to by your Excellency's Government, China should, in due reciprocity and international comity, accept and practise the same principle."

Then he proceeds to show, among other things, wholly from the records of our own Government, that China in one year paid as indemnity to American citizens $735,258.97.

I am aware that Secretaries Evarts and Blaine talked the Chinese Legation out of the indemnity claim for damages sustained by the Denver mob of 1880, and Secretary Bayard undertook to shelter himself under the same cover in his correspondence with the legation over the Rock Springs case. However, Cheng Tsao Ju was not so easily turned down as Chen Lan Pin. Yet, even in the Denver case, Mr. Blaine was so hardly pressed that he set up the fact, as a flimsy makeweight in his argument, that the Chinese were, at the time the mob commenced, also violating American law by being about a saloon on Sunday. Cheng Tsao Ju conducted his correspondence with a masterly ability and dignity. He not only refuted the doctrine of Evarts, Blaine, and Bayard, but demonstrated that China was right in this claim for indemnity, under our own precedents, and compelled our Government to do the only thing it in honor and consistency could do, which was to pay the indemnity in full, which it did.

While it is true, as the *Nation* says, that our Government, in so doing, said "it was a matter of grace and not of right," I submit that it was a matter of "reciprocity" and justice if not of strict technical right.

The judicial proceedings that followed the Rock Springs butchery—coroner's inquest, report of the Grand Jury, etc.—were such a grotesque travesty that no wonder Cheng Tsao Ju, in referring to the matter, said, with a sarcasm as keen as a Damascus blade, "The judicial proceedings which followed the sad event are described as 'a burlesque.' The conduct of the coroner who investigated the causes of death seems to me strange, *but with my imperfect knowledge of American procedure I prefer not to criticise it.*" (F. R., 1886, p. 102.)

It may also be interesting to note here, for the benefit of demagogues who bank upon the wickedness and depravity of the heathen Chinese, an incident that occurred in the distribution of this indemnity fund among the Rock Springs sufferers. When the money was paid over to the Chinese Minister at Washington, it was sent to their Consul in San Francisco for distribution. The list of claimants numbered 764, and their several demands ran from as low as $11 to over $3,000. It had gone through the red-tape office at Washington, and had been approved by the Commission, yet, on actual distribution, the Consul at San Francisco discovered that six names had been repeated in the list, making an aggregate over-payment of $480.75, which he promptly returned to the legation at Washington; and on the 24th of October, 1887, Chang Yen Hoon, the Chinese Minister at Washington, returned it to Secretary Bayard. (Papers relating to the F. R. of the U. S., 1888, pp. 243-4.)

J. T. Mayfett.

THE SICILIANS AT HOME.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The following information may be found interesting and appropriate at this time. Some few years ago, being in Sicily, we heard much praise of a certain Gen. P., commanding there, who was carrying on, more successfully than his predecessors, a campaign against the brigands. His system was this: When the troops made any prisoners, they were bound and guarded so carelessly that they, as a matter of course, tried to escape, when they were immediately shot. This system was recognized as the only means of securing deserved punish-

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ment for their incredible crimes, as no jury ever agreed in convicting them, the Maffia holding every-one in complete subjection.

It is difficult to discover any fundamental difference between this system adopted by a general in the Italian Army and that practised at New Orleans. If there be any people who doubt the ultimate righteousness of the two processes, I think a few portraits of these Sicilians would convert them to a warm desire to have as many disposed of, and as rapidly, as could conveniently be done. They are not human in the ordinary meaning of the phrase, but very dangerous wild beasts.

Sicily has lain under a black pall of oppression through all the centuries, and has been almost untouched by the movements of civilization. Even now the efforts of the Government are of little or no effect, being so nearly neutralized by the feudal rights of the great landowners, who are almost totally without compassion for the people. A Sicilian of to-day is virtually a survival from the middle ages, absolutely incapable of understanding civilization and its laws, duties, and advantages. Force and fraud are the sole paths he knows of to his ends, and revenge is his cherished bosom companion.

This no doubt seems exaggeration and prejudice to some who have not lived where these people can be studied, but I fear the United States will have many a chance now to learn the correctness of the statement, since we are doomed by fate and the absence of common sense from our emigration laws to have many thousand of such fellow-citizens. Perhaps in this view it may not be amiss for those who do not already know the positive barbarism of these people, to have one or two facts set before them showing the precautions Sicilians find necessary against their country-people's ways and means.

Having letters to one of the greatest ladies of the land, we were one day taken by her to see one of her score of country places about two miles from the city. The house was fine, in the midst of gardens and park of extreme beauty, and everything in perfect order, but the owner herself could not live in it for danger of being carried off to the mountains. She could only drive there every day to enjoy its beauty, taking care to leave before twilight. Her town house, in a closely built street, had a veranda behind, about fifteen feet above the large garden. It was furnished with luxury, had pictures and statues, and was shut in for the whole length by heavy iron gratings—like a prison—for defence against the brigands.

The landlord of our hotel showed a ring which he put on when he drove out to his farm near the city, from which he drew his supplies. This ring contained poison for himself if he should be carried off to the mountains. He objected to having his ears and nose and fingers sent down to his family by instalments in default of ransom, and did not wish them to be ruined by paying it.

In one of the larger towns a friend of ours strolled into a doorway, before which stood a guard of soldiers. He found one or two judges on their bench, a few lawyers, and a crowd of prisoners—men, women, young girls, children, priests. It was the whole population of a village which had been a scourge for years for all the country round. Every imaginable crime and cruelty was proved, for the Government brought its full power to bear, and happily they were convicted—sent to the galleys, from which they escape or are discharged and go to us. We may be sure, though the letter of their law of murder and theft may vary in different countries, the spirit will remain the same, and our habits of letting things drift into order if they can, will presently seem to us, as it does now to the rest of the world, criminal neglect of precaution against a very great evil and burden.

M. G. L.

Florence, April 5, 1891.

A FRATERNITY OF STUDENTS IN PARIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: As a part of the great and hopeful movement which bids fair to give the world a more cosmopolitan intellectual life than it has ever had in the past, the recent banquet given under the auspices of the General Association of the students of Paris deserves attention. Not many months ago the University, recognizing the importance of the foreign element among the students, established a Committee of Reception whose business it should be to smooth the way for those coming from abroad. Of this committee the best-known members are perhaps MM. Taine, Pasteur, Lavisse, and Picot. Its secretary is M. Paul Melon. A further advance towards rendering the ties closer between the various universities of Europe and America was taken last week. Through the efforts of M. Bérenger, President of the General Association of the Students, and Mr. A. J. Herbertson, the most active member of the venerable Scotch College of Paris, a banquet was arranged at which the foreign students and the Committee of Reception might make each other's acquaintance. Mr. Leo S. Rowe of Philadelphia spoke for the Americans present.

The most important provisions of the project of organization to be submitted to the various universities are as follows: (1.) Each university shall organize a committee of reception for foreign students, such as already exists at Paris and Montpellier and in Sweden and Scotland, and in which the general body of the students shall be represented by a delegate. (2.) In each association of students (such as that at Paris) the foreigners shall group themselves according to "nations," in order to establish regulations between the foreign students themselves and between them and the General Association, as well as to diminish for those newly arriving the moral and material difficulties incident to establishing one's self in a strange land. (3.) These "nations" shall each choose a representative to serve as intermediary between themselves on the one hand and the Committee of the Students' Association and the Committee of Reception on the other.

Although the comparatively rare appearance of a foreign student at our universities would seem to render an organization of this character premature, there is reason to look forward to a time when our educational institutions will exercise an attraction upon the students of Europe in some degree equivalent to that which brings hundreds of our graduates across the ocean every year. It is at least clear that the steps taken at Paris, if followed by other important universities, cannot fail to make the intercourse among the students of different nations easier, and so do away in the rising generation with the narrow prejudices which have so long been falsely regarded as an element of patriotism.

James Harvey Robinson.

Paris, March 27, 1891.

JOHN WHITE'S DRAWINGS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In 1880 it was my good fortune to come across, in the Grenville Collection, British Museum, the original drawings from which De Bry's engravings of Virginia (or rather of North Carolina) Indians as seen by Raleigh's colonists were made. Part of these I had photographed and reproduced in the *Century Magazine* for November, 1882, and May, 1883. John White's very remarkable map of the coast was first brought to the attention of scholars by its publication in the number of the magazine for November, 1882. It is in the same volume with the other drawings—a volume sold to the Museum by Henry Stevens after it had been offered to our own Government.

I was not aware, when I made my publication of these drawings, that Mr. Edward Everett Hale had discussed many years before another volume in the British Museum purporting to contain John White's originals from which De Bry's engravings were made (*Arch. Americana*, iv., 21). This volume is in the British Museum, in the collection known as Sloane and Additional Manuscripts. I concluded, on reading Mr. Hale's paper, that the two volumes contained the two parts of a complete collection of White's drawings. I believe they were so treated by Mr. Winsor, who cites Henry Stevens's description of the one and Mr. Hale's of the other. Yesterday, by the kind assistance of Mr. Richard Garnett and other officers of the Museum, I was enabled to compare for an hour or so the two collections, with a very unexpected result.

I find that the Sloane volume has, as Mr. Hale states, an inscription describing its contents as "the originalls" from which De Bry made his pictures, and as made by John White, "who accompanied" Sir Walter Raleigh on his voyage, etc. This inscription is written in a handwriting unmistakably of the seventeenth century. But as Raleigh did not make the voyage in person, the inscription must have been made by some one ignorant of the facts, and it is therefore without authority. I am inclined to think that the writer of the memorandum meant to say that these were copies of the originals of De Bry's drawings. There is another memorandum in the book, unimportant except that it is dated 1673, which shows that the pictures were made not more than eighty-eight years later than White's originals.

I did not compare closely the botanical and zoölogical drawings, but many of them coincide in subject in the two volumes, and *all* the figures of American Indians in the Sloane book are in the Grenville with many more, for the Sloane has but eight American-Indian pieces, including the two Esquimaux and the view of Pomeioc. The Grenville drawings are immensely superior in technical quality to those in the Sloane, and I thought at first that the Sloane lot might be the original sketches, and the Grenville the completed pictures. But this hypothesis proved untenable. The Grenville figures are Indians. No one acquainted with Indian characteristics will doubt for a moment that the artist had known the real savage. The figures in the Sloane collection have lost all race character, and could not possibly have been made by any man who had ever seen Indians.

Two things are evident:

(1.) That the pictures in the Grenville are the originals used by De Bry. The correspondence of the inscriptions, both in handwriting and phrasing, proves this.

(2.) They are by the same hand as the map of the coast, in the same volume, and that hand is presumably White's. The correspondence between the handwriting and the execu-

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tion of the map and the figures shows that they are by the same clever artist.

Both collections have drawings of costume other than Indian, but these non-Indian drawings are not identical in subject throughout. Among those found in both are the Ancient Britons, reproduced by De Bry. Lastly there is nothing in De Bry that he could have found in the Sloane book and not in the Grenville, while there are many of De Bry's subjects in the latter which are not in the former. I am forced to conclude that the drawings in the Grenville are John White's originals, which were used with some changes by De Bry, and that the Sloane pictures are not originals, but early and rather clumsy copies. Only a more critical examination than I had time to make will show whether they were copied from White, from which they vary considerably, or from De Bry's printed pictures.

EDWARD EGGLESTON.

LONDON, April 9, 1891.

CARDINAL NEWMAN.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I think the thoughtful public owes a debt of gratitude to "F. H." for his plain-spoken words about Cardinal Newman—and this in spite of the vein of captiousness running through the whole communication. The letter did scant justice to Newman's better and nobler traits, yet I think it is the truest thing that has yet been written about him. It showed pretty clearly the real character of Newman's mind and thought, and in showing it revealed its narrowness and worthlessness. His moral character was very far from worthless—that goes without saying: grave, pure, lofty, and austere, it was a power for good wherever its influence was felt. But his intellectual influence was pernicious just so far as it was felt.

It is true, Mr. Hutton, in his recent essay upon Newman, speaks of his great powers of mind and of his great mind. Now, great powers of mind he certainly had, for he possessed wide scholarship, first-rate dialectical skill, considerable intellectual penetration and subtlety, and extraordinary command of language. But I claim that such powers as these do not make a great mind. It is the use of them that determines that, and the use that Newman made of them was an exceedingly poor one. Following the ascetic and mystical bent of his nature, he found his light and inspiration in the grim theology of the early Christian Fathers, and set his back upon all the broadest thought of the age. He was familiar with history, but he used it to support the narrowest dogmas. He was acquainted with the trend of modern thought, but he believed it corrupted men's minds. Luther, one of the greatest figures in history, was to him a creator of heresy and schism. The 'Apologia' is a great piece of dialectical writing, but the intellectual pettiness it reveals is to many minds simply pitiful. I am convinced that Kingsley could have written a crushing answer to it if he had chosen.

Probably Newman's style will secure for his works, at least for some of them, a permanent place in English literature; but I think it is safe to say that his influence as a thinker will be small. He will help to confirm some in those narrow ways of thought in which his own mind moved. He will give spiritual refreshment to many who turn to the finer and more beautiful things that are scattered through his writings. His ideals of Christian virtue will always be found helpful and ennobling. His thought will contribute not one jot or one tittle to the world's intellectual progress.

And may I trespass on your space to say just one thing more? Does not Mr. Hutton's pseudo-liberalism attest the pernicious character of Newman's influence? A tree is known by its fruits, and the Christianity that sees no moral obliquity in a union of Church and State, and in the Tory methods of governing Ireland, does not impress me as a thoroughly admirable thing. I am a most uncompromising believer in what is loosely termed Evangelical Christianity, but I prefer the non-religious morality of the *Nation* to the non-moral religion of the *Spectator*, which cannot tell bigotry and brutality when it sees them at its very door.

EDMUND H. SEARS.

BOSTON, April 12, 1891.

LANDOR'S BAD ENGLISH.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In corroboration of the statement made by your indefatigable correspondent, "F. H.," that the use of our language, "even by eminent Britons," is fairly open to criticism, I submit the following:

"The family of Sir Thomas [Lucy] became extinct nearly half a century ago, and the estates descended to the Rev. Mr. John Hammond, a respectable Welsh curate, between whom and him there existed at his birth eighteen prior claimants."

This remarkable specimen of English is by no less eminent a Briton than Walter Savage Landor (Works, ii., 457).

I am, sir, etc.,

WM. HAND BROWNE.

THE RANGE OF RATIO OF THE PRECIOUS METALS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: There has been printed for private circulation by Mr. John Henry Norman of London a paper which he read before the Royal Statistical Society, which ought to be in the hands of some of our frantic statesmen, *i. e.*, those who propose to remove all evil by making fiat-money, either of paper or of the inferior of the two most precious metals of monetary use. Mr. Norman shows that, from the Conquest to this day, whether under a double or a single standard, the price of wheat has varied from other influences than those of the coinage. He shows also that the per-capita theory is the vainest of delusions, "as every wise man's son doth know"; that the proportion of gold to silver has varied from 1 to 12.54 in the time of Edward III. to 1 to 5 in the time of Edward VI., and back to 1 to 14 28 in the time of George III. This shows a much greater range than Prof. Laughlin gives, as I remember his tables and charts, in his 'History of Bimetallism.' The variation in the gold price and silver price for wheat is great, notwithstanding there was free (*i.e.*, unlimited) coinage of silver. The number of grains of gold, and the number of grains of silver, relatively to a quarter of wheat, varies 3 or 4 per cent. in the number of grains required of gold to silver.

The lesson for the fiat people to be found in Mr. Norman's table is in the shrinkage in the weight of the pound sterling from 5,328 grains of fine (pure) gold in 1066 to 113 in our day, and of the shilling from 266 grains of silver to 80 grains in George the Third's time. It is, as Locke said, not the sound or name of the coin, but the fine metal it contains, which gives its purchasing power. The pound of to-day and of the Conqueror's time vary exactly as their grains of gold (laying aside archaic reasons).

The little book of a dozen pages is full of meat for the student, and it is to be hoped that Mr. Norman will issue it for sale.

POSEY S. WILSON.

DENVER, COL., April 12, 1891.

Notes.

DODD, MEAD & Co. are preparing to issue in the autumn the fifth and concluding volume of Mr. James Schouler's 'History of the United States.' It covers the period from 1847 to 1861, or from the Mexican to the Civil War.

J. B. Lippincott Co. are about to publish 'The Old Navy and the New,' by Admiral Ammen; and 'Man Immortal,' an allegorical poem by William Stitt Taylor.

Mrs. Caroline E. Upham, with the aid of Mr. Wm. P. Upham, has made a popular abridgment of C. W. Upham's 'History of Salem Witchcraft,' now a costly book, compressing the narrative into a hundred pages. The Salem Press Publishing and Printing Co. will bring it out in two editions, one, limited, on large paper.

Welch, Fracker Co. announce 'Ohio in Art,' by Francis C. Sessions, a subscription work, freely illustrated. The list of artists embraces Thomas Cole, Hiram Powers, J. Q. A. Ward, Kenyon Cox, the Beards, Robert Blum, J. H. Twachtman, etc.

The Historical Printing Club, No. 97 Clark Street, Brooklyn, N. Y., offers in a limited edition 'The Press of North Carolina in the Eighteenth Century,' with a bibliography, by Stephen B. Weeks.

Mr. Thomas A. Janvier's 'Stories of New Spain' is to be published immediately by D. Appleton & Co. One of the collection, "A Mexican Night," has not appeared before.

'Balaam and his Master, and Other Stories, by Joel Chandler Harris, and 'Fourteen to One,' short stories by Miss Phelps, are on the summer list of Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

D. C. Heath & Co., Boston, have in press 'American Literature,' for high schools and colleges, by Julian Hawthorne and Leonard Lemmon; and 'French by Reading,' a new inductive method, by Louise S. and Mary Houghton.

John Wiley & Sons are preparing 'The Mechanical Engineer's Pocket-Book,' by William Kent, C.E.

The Memorial Volume of 'Essays and Monographs,' by the late Prof. William Francis Allen of the University of Wisconsin, has been issued in a worthy shape by the committee in charge of the editing, with a fairly good likeness of this pure-minded and genial scholar. A sufficient biographical sketch is prefixed, and a very full bibliography appended, from which Prof. Allen's enormous block of contributions to the *Nation* is obvious at a glance. Of the Monographs, two are upon Roman topics; the rest constitute a valuable group of studies of primitive and mediæval communities among the Germans, French, and Anglo-Saxons; with a trace of the survival of land community in New England. Of the Essays, again, two relate to Rome; others are historical, educational, and religious. The volume, finally, of nearly 400 pages, has a good index. It may be had of Mr. David B. Frankenburger, Madison, Wis.

'Pepero, the Boy-Artist' (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), more fully described on the title-page as "A Brief Memoir of James Jackson Jarves, jr., by his Father," gives an account of the short life of one who was believed by his family and friends to be destined to become the fu

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ture great artist of America. It is illustrated with some thirty of his drawings—copies and original compositions. What he would have accomplished had he lived—he died in his fifteenth year—it is, of course, impossible to say; but these examples are certainly very remarkable work for a child, and the text gives a glimpse of a character as remarkable as the work and very beautiful. Born in Florence and dying in Rome, it is not unnatural that he should have been profoundly influenced by Michael Angelo, but he seems to have been almost as much affected by William Blake. The result is strangely pompous and academic for the work of a child, and shows little freshness or naïveté of vision. It may be doubted whether the influence of such powerful temperaments is the best to which a beginner in the arts could be submitted, but doubtless that study from nature which his ill health rendered impossible would in time have corrected what was unhealthy in the exclusiveness of his admiration.

'Student's Atlas of Artistic Anatomy,' by Prof. C. Roth, comes to us from B. Westermann & Co. It is likely to be as useful to students of art as such books ever are. The plates are excellently done, and the addition of the larger drawings of parts of the body greatly increases the value of the atlas. It is a singular oversight that there are no illustrations of the actions of pronation and supination of the arm. The notes are written in an extraordinary and, to us, quite unintelligible style.

'Paris of To-day' (Cassell Publishing Co.) is a bright and readable bit of journalistic work, and has been translated out of the original Danish of Richard Kauffmann into excellent English by Miss Olga Flinch. It manages to convey a great deal of the peculiar charm of Paris, together with considerable miscellaneous and not very important information. It is profusely illustrated with clever sketches by French artists, of which those in "tone," however, suffer by indifferent reproduction.

The collection of "Les Grands Écrivains Français" grows slowly but steadily, and the latest volume to appear is M. Arvède Barine's biography of Bernardin de Saint-Pierre (Paris: Hachette; New York: F. W. Christern). It is a careful sketch—a little cold-blooded, but appreciative in the best sense, since it is founded on a thorough study and an exact understanding of Saint-Pierre's contradictory character. Perhaps the most interesting passage is that in which the author of 'Paul and Virginia' is shown to have been one of the very earliest of Frenchmen to appreciate the beauties of landscape, of sea and of sky, of nature out-doors and under the changing conditions of the seasons. Another passage likely to surprise some is that in which the critic quotes Sainte-Beuve and Gautier to show that 'Paul and Virginia' is no colorless pastoral, but an amorous idyl worthy of comparison with 'Daphnis and Chloe.'

The second volume of the second series of the oddly named 'Journal des Goncourt'—since this second series is the journal of one Goncourt only—covers the years 1872-1877, and is preceded by a preface in which the surviving M. de Goncourt tries to break the force of M. Renan's indignant disclaimer of words put in his mouth in the first volume of this series. M. Renan declared that M. de Goncourt was incapable of apprehending a general idea. The latter's preface and these pages from his diary are unwittingly strong evidence in support of M. Renan's opinion. But this is the most interesting volume of the journal, for it abounds with quotations from the talk of Flaubert, Turgeneff, and Zola. From these pages we get strange side-lights on the little knot of men who met at Flaubert's on Sunday afternoons. These curious revelations repay the reader for the wearing conceit of the diarist—a conceit colossal almost beyond parallel in literature, and as sickly as it is swollen.

We have already noticed Señora Bazán's latest novel, of which the first part is now done into English under the title of 'A Christian Woman' (Cassell Publishing Co.). The translation, by Mary Springer, is painstaking and sufficiently accurate, though it often fails to convey the sprightly vivacity of the original. A portrait of the author, of rather dubious artistic value, forms the frontispiece of the volume, which is attractively and, on the whole, accurately printed.

The latest Bulletin of the Boston Public Library contains a list of recent works on American domestic architecture; a list of Spanish and Portuguese books given circulation by the Library; and a noticeable finding-list of works by and relating to J. J. Rousseau.

One generally distrusts a publication which offers a premium to subscribers, as if it did not of itself return an equivalent for the subscription price. Such distrust may be dismissed in the case of that excellent periodical, the *American Bookmaker* (New York: Howard Lockwood & Co.), which freely endows its subscribers with an important work, 'The American Dictionary of Printing and Bookmaking,' calculated to extend to 600 quarto pages, profusely illustrated, and to take three years in the finishing, during which time the parts will not be for sale. Part I. (A—Blanks) has appeared this month, and gives promise of filling worthily a vacant niche in our technical books of reference. Noticeable is the inclusion in one alphabet of French, German, and Italian terms of the art along with English. The international biography of printers, engravers, type-founders, publishers, binders, etc., is naturally fullest in the American portion. The portraits and the illustrations in general can be praised without reserve, and the proof-reading has been carefully looked after.

Dr. Daniel Sanders's *Zeitschrift für deutsche Sprache* will be hereafter published at Paderborn by Ferdinand Schöningh. It is now entering on its fifth volume.

We have received three more parts of the new Flügel's 'English-German and German-English Dictionary' (New York: Westermann), viz., two in continuation of the former section, which is carried as far as the word Horse; and the first of the German-English section (A—Capital). It is needless to discuss the rank of this great dictionary, but we must postpone a critical examination of it till it is somewhat nearer completion.

From the publishing-house of Delagrave in Paris we have received the first four parts (A—Brouette, pp. 1-304) of the epoch-making 'Dictionnaire de la Langue Française' to which the late lamented Arène Darmesteter put his hand with so much learning and industry for nearly half his short life of forty-two years. His colleague, Prof. Adolphe Hatzfeld, has associated with himself a pupil of Darmesteter's, M. Antoine Thomas, and the three names are associated upon the title-page. There will be thirty parts. To this work, too, we must return later.

In a brief notice of the new edition of Mr. Herbert Spencer's "Essays" the *Academy* of Apr. 4 says: "The truth is that Mr. Spencer, like De Quincey, has been more honored during his lifetime in the United States than in his own country. It was otherwise with Darwin, not one of whose works, we believe, have [*sic*] ever been reprinted in America down to this date." This is the most amazing piece of literary news that we remember since Funk & Wagnalls's famous statement of last autumn that they had sent Prof. W. C. Wilkinson to Europe "to consult, in the interest of our Dictionary, the celebrated French lexicographer, M. Littré, the author of what is unquestionably the most admirable dictionary of any language," and mentioned the fact as "another indication of the thoroughness with which the work upon this Dictionary is being pushed."

The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching, whose headquarters are at No. 1602 Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, purposes publishing a journal, called *University Extension*, to serve as a medium of communication with the local centres or branches.

The Committee on English Research of the New England Historic Genealogical Society appeals for funds to continue Mr. Henry F. Waters in the work which he has so brilliantly illustrated in the case of Washington, Harvard, and Roger Williams, while following out in no narrow spirit American clues such as no other person possesses. The Society also desires to accelerate the rate of publication of his "Gleanings" in the *Register*, and to that end needs a contribution of $2,000 annually for at least five years. A quarter of this sum has been already subscribed. The Society's address is No. 18 Somerset Street, Boston.

Mrs. Augustus Craven died at Paris, on April 2, at the age of eighty-two years. She was a daughter of M. de La Ferronays, sometime Minister of Foreign Affairs and Ambassador to St. Petersburg under the Restoration. Many Americans will recall the intimate acquaintance that they gained with Mrs. Craven's family some twenty years ago through her book, 'A Sister's Story,' which, in spite of its sentimental Roman Catholic pietism, may still be called a good book. Besides this 'Récit d'une Sœur,' Mrs. Craven wrote 'Souvenirs de Famille,' 'Fleurange,' 'Le Mot d'Énigme,' and other volumes. Her papers and unpublished writings are bequeathed to her nephew, Count Albert de Mun, the well-known Catholic-Socialist Deputy.

Ten years have elapsed since the American School of Classical Studies was organized at Athens, and it is gratifying to learn from the ninth annual report of the Managing Committee that, while the desired endowment has not been wholly raised, the contributory colleges are mostly ready to renew their stated support. The School can point to its pupils as now occupying important positions, principally as teachers, in eighteen States of the Union, from Maine to Texas and South Dakota. Together with this report, the Archæological Institute of America sends out an Index to its publications during the decade, by William Stetson Merrill of the Newberry Library, Chicago. It is a very thorough piece of work, filling, with a Greek index, eighty-nine pages.

Mr. F. Gutekunst of Philadelphia sends us a large photograph of the late Lawrence Barrett, one of the best of the many fine portraits of contemporaries which have left his photographic gallery of recent years. The portrait shows the strong face of the actor, with its fiery eyes, its determined mouth, and the grizzled hair over the forehead. A study of this photograph will go far towards explaining the reason why the lean and hungry *Cassius* of "Julius Cæsar" was always Lawrence Barrett's highest achievement on the stage. Physical gifts and personal limitations count for

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more in the theatre than in any other walk in life. Mr. Gutekunst has not been less fortunate in his "imperial panel" of the late P. T. Barnum, a vigorous presentation of a remarkably youthful personage.

—"S. A. B." inquires:

"Can any one explain the law or custom regulating the seals formerly in use in the United States Custom-house? In Boston Thomas Melville was Naval Officer from 1811 to 1829. In 1819 he appointed Samuel Parker to be his deputy, and the commission bears the following seal: The inscription around the margin reads: 'Custom House of the District of Boston and Charlestown.' The centre bears the American eagle, grasping the arrows or thunderbolts, and he holds in his beak a shield whereon are displayed the arms of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. I desire to know for what period this seal was used, what preceded and succeeded it, and also whether a similar device was used in other customs districts, presuming that the State arms varied in each."

—"C. C." writes to us as follows:

"Can you put me on the track of the author, or the origin, of the phrase, *esprit d'escalier*? Is it a French phrase, or, is it, like *nom de plume*, an English manufacture, and not French at all? It has long been familiar to me, and without examination I had believed it classical, or at least accepted. It is not, however, in Littré, under either word, and the other day, when it was used by an acquaintance of mine, he was asked what it meant; and as it turned out, he and I were the only ones present who had ever heard it. Moreover, an accomplished Frenchman to whom I have put the question, asks me what it means, and says he has never heard it used nor seen it in print."

In Meyer's 'Konversations-Lexicon' (4th ed.), under *Esprit*, we read: "*Esprit d'escalier* (Treppenwitz) is in Germany jocosely applied to the man who on the stairs, *i. e.*, on taking leave, thinks of something he ought to have said in the room."

—One of the most interesting and important public documents issued recently by any State is the first report of the Free Public Library Commission of Massachusetts, a volume of nearly 300 pages. It embraces the text of all the State's legislation concerning libraries from 1798 to 1890, when the act was passed by which this Commission was called into being; a classified list of the towns and cities provided with free public libraries in a special sense (viz., such as are wholly supported and controlled by the authorities), the towns where the support and control are partly a town concern, those in which it is not a town concern, and those which have no public libraries at all; and an extensive history of the rise and present state of such libraries as exist, in alphabetic order, together with numerous views of the library buildings. No more cheering reading can be found. Exactly one-half of the 351 towns and cities enumerated have libraries entirely under municipal control, and two-thirds are provided with public libraries. The 103 towns destitute of any comprise a population of but 134,719, or an average of about 1,300 souls; and sixty-seven of these have declined in population in the past five years. In many of these it may be doubted whether the public library would have any greater staying power than the churches which are deserted by the inhabitants. Nevertheless, the State will make the effort to put down the stake if the townsfolk will assist. Some of the public libraries have grown out of social libraries originating in the last century, like that at Boylston, which had maintained an unbroken and active existence for eighty-eight years. At Franklin, some ninety volumes are yet preserved out of a gift establishing a library by the town's namesake, then Minister to France, in 1785. In one case, Ludlow, the free library is wholly supported by the local manufacturing company, the building having been erected as a widow's memorial to her husband, and presented to the town, and the books having been at first intended for the company's employees. The founders or promoters have frequently been women, as well as clergymen and professional men. Natives who have gone out from the little towns to seek their fortune have remembered their birthplaces with these best of monuments. Sometimes the dead soldiers of the civil war have furnished a motive. In two or three instances special efforts are made by the libraries to secure an exhaustive collection of publications relating to the locality. The photographic views of library buildings are numerous and most interesting. Among the newer structures are some of the finest examples of architecture in the State. Subsequent reports are not likely to be so full as this, since the historical sketches have been written once for all; but perhaps more views will be provided. We could wish, also, for a map of the State showing all the towns, and coloring or otherwise distinguishing them as having or not having libraries. Another map might be shaded to show the number of volumes accessible in every part of the State. Such graphic illustrations would do much to promote emulation.

—We regret to record the death of Dr. James K. Thacher, Professor of Physiology in the Yale Medical School, who died suddenly of pneumonia on Monday last, at the age of forty-three years. He was a man of remarkable power, but his professional duties so far interfered with continuous scientific work that the results of his labors are to be found in short monographs, chiefly known to specialists. He won an international reputation by his studies on "Median and Paired Fins" in the Transactions of the Connecticut Academy for 1877, in which he opposed Gegenbaur's views, and developed the theory, since elaborated by Mivart, of the evolution of the limbs of the higher vertebrates from the fins of archaic fishes. Of late he has principally devoted himself to the study of heart-action and pulse-waves. His most important paper on the latter subject appeared in 1888 in the Transactions of the Association of American Physicians, of which he was one of the original members.

—To Mr. Stewart Culin, who has made himself familiar with the inner life of the Chinese among us, we are indebted for a clear and interesting account of 'The Gambling Games of the Chinese in America.' The pamphlet, neatly bound in boards, is issued as the fourth number in the first volume of a series in philology, literature, and archæology, published by the University of Pennsylvania, in Philadelphia. The two most popular games of risk are Fan T'an, "the game of repeatedly spreading out," and Pak Kop Piu, or "the game of white-pigeon ticket." The first is a very simple procedure, in which a handful or two of Chinese coins are covered with a brass cup, whence they are repeatedly spread out on the table with a tapering rod by "the ruler of the spreading out." The players deposit their wagers on or beside the numbers they select on the plate, which is a sheet of tin in the centre of the table, with its edges marked off from right to left, with the numbers from one to four. The master of the game sits at one end of the table, and the clerk or casbier at the other. In extemporized games, a mat will suffice, the plate with numbers being simply a square marked in ink. With slight variations, the game consists in the players guessing what remainder will be left when the pile is divided by four, the bets being upon the result. The fan t'an companies, of which there are eight in Philadelphia and over thirty in New York, have in each case a capital of fifty or a hundred dollars. Each of the smaller companies makes a profit of about five dollars a day; the tables in the gambling cellars being often used by several companies alternately during the twenty-four hours. Various changes in furniture and method are made from time to time, to turn a run of bad luck, or to make conviction difficult when the place is raided by the police. Somewhat more respectable is the other game of lottery, which is played in upper rooms and appears to be a simple game of chance. The cards used are made in China, and stamped or printed with the first eighty characters of the Thousand-Character Classic, which are so well known by all Chinese from boyhood as to serve for numerals. In China, where lotteries are illegal, they are frequently carried on among the hills near the cities, and it is said that pigeons are used to convey the tickets and winning numbers between the offices and their patrons—whence the name applied first to the tickets, and from them to the lottery itself. The upper room, instead of the cellar, is a survival of the loft used in China, but neither this nor other precautions here used seem to be necessary, for the United States mails serve as carrier pigeons, and the runners daily traverse the cities from laundry to laundry, soliciting custom. The pamphlet of seventeen pages is packed with suggestive information about the guilds, habits, and superstitions of the wonderfully well-organized people among us who have come from the freest country and greatest democracy in Asia. How their gambling habits and their religion are well mixed together, and how the proprietors of the gambling-dens are among the most orthodox, and often of the straightest sect of the Celestial pharisees, in keeping alive the traditions and religious ceremonial of their native country, is clearly shown by Mr. Culin. In a word, here among us are seen survivals of methods by which some of our oldest colleges and philanthropic institutions were endowed, but which are now in vogue chiefly in Louisiana.

—It is well known that the German historian Leopold von Ranke intended to write his autobiography, but was diverted from this purpose by what he deemed the more pressing claims of his 'Weltgeschichte' and a new edition of his "Sämmtliche Werke." After his death the latter task was completed by Dr. Alfred Dove of the University of Bonn, who published, as the twelfth and concluding volume of the work, a mass of interesting contributions to the venerable historian's life, entitled 'Zur eigenen Lebensgeschichte' (Leipzig, 1890). This volume, as the title indicates, is made up of autobiographical material, consisting of diaries, fragmentary memorabilia, relations of important events (such as Ranke's interview with M. Thiers at Vienna in 1870), but chiefly of letters to members of his family and his most intimate friends. Ranke's younger brother Heinrich, a distinguished theologian and pulpit orator, settled at Rückersdorf, near Nuremberg, in Bavaria, was afterwards appointed professor in the theological faculty at Erlangen, and finally made consistorial councillor at Munich, where he died in 1876, and where his two sons, the physician Heinrich and the anthropologist Johannes, are now professors in the University.

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It was to this branch of the family that the greater number of the three hundred and twenty-nine letters, nearly all of which are here printed for the first time, were addressed. Of the remainder, the most noteworthy are those written to his wife, to his youngest brother Ernst, professor of theology at Marburg, to the philosopher Heinrich Ritter of Göttingen, and to his pupils Giesebrecht, Sybel, Waitz, and Maximilian II. of Bavaria, who as Crown Prince studied in Berlin in 1830, and whose warm friendship Ranke enjoyed from that time until the sudden and untimely death of the King in 1864. Ranke states that King Maximilian had often spoken of the policy which Bavaria ought to pursue in case of an armed conflict between Austria and Prussia, and is firmly convinced that, if this monarch had been living in 1866, he would have taken no part in the war, and certainly not as Austria's ally. His aversion to Beust was intense, and he was too broad-minded and level-headed to be carried away by local patriotism.

MADISON'S SECOND ADMINISTRATION.—II.

History of the United States of America during the Second Administration of James Madison. By Henry Adams. 3 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

THERE was, it must be admitted, a plentiful lack of executive energy in the political, military, and financial administration of Madison during this period of storm and stress. Yet there was no lack of constancy. The "pertinacity" of Madison now stood him in good stead. After a whole chapter devoted to a description of the "exhaustion" which overtook the Government in the latter part of the year 1814, Mr. Adams devotes another chapter to the exposure of the ineptitude betrayed by Congress in dealing with the currency, the restoration of which to something like a solid basis was seen to be the first condition of financial reform. The plan of finance adopted by Gallatin at the outset of the war had assumed that all deficits were to be covered by loans, but the Government had now reached a stage, at the beginning of the fiscal year in July, 1814, when further loans were found impracticable. Dallas did not conceal from his political friends the sharp points of the trilemma on which the public credit was impaled. Yet, to the honor of Madison, of the Treasury Department, and of Congress, be it said that even at a time when "the Treasury was suffering under every kind of embarrassment," the Republicans of that day set their faces like a flint against the cheap and easy expedient of legal-tender paper money. Jefferson, it is true, had argued that inasmuch as the State banks had virtually declared their *déchéance* by suspending specie payments, it was now competent for Congress to issue promissory notes "founded on specific taxes" to give them currency. Mr. Adams thinks that though Jefferson "did not touch on legal tender," his assumption of power implied in the issue of paper "seemed to require that the Government should exercise its right of obliging its creditors to accept it." We do not know on what authority this statement is made, as the implication was expressly negatived by the language of Jefferson in his correspondence at this epoch. He confined himself entirely to a method of finance which, "based on specific redeeming taxes," would, as he said, enable the nation to anticipate, in its yearly paper emissions, the resources of the next year and of the future peace. He openly denounced a resort to "juggling tricks" or "banking dreams," and held up for warning the example of the nations that had tried "every path of force or folly" in the "fruitless quest to make money out of nothing."

Dallas, in a letter to Eppes, the Chairman of the Committee on Ways and Means, written under date of October 19, 1814, rejected even the temporary expedient of Treasury notes emitted on the basis of future taxes, and excluded the alternative of a possible resort to "juggling tricks" by significantly adding that "the extremity of that day cannot be anticipated when any honest and enlightened statesman will again [that is, after the experience of our Revolutionary war] venture upon the desperate expedient of a tender law."

Mr. Adams dismisses this episode in our financial history without a word of comment beyond the remark that, "without a tender law, the Virginia scheme would have hardly answered the purposes required." But seeing that a tender law was avowedly excluded from the thought of Jefferson, and was indignantly scouted by Dallas, we could rather have wished that the opportunity might have been utilized for pointing a moral in favor at least of the perspicacity and probity with which the financiers of that time, though weltering in fiscal mire and bog, refused to clutch at the makeshift of legal tender. Ten years later, when a Georgia politician of the strict-construction school would fain portray the last enormity of the Federal usurpations that might one day be risked in the name of the "implied powers of the Constitution," he predicted that, under the pressure of war, the Government might possibly assume the power to pass even a legal-tender act. The prediction was fulfilled in 1862, under the stress of our civil war. The moral sophistication wrought by that untoward act in defence of a good cause soon spread to the intellect of the country, and so darkened counsel that in 1883 the supreme judicial sensorium of the nation was brought to believe that Congress has the constitutional power to make Treasury notes a legal tender in payment of private debts, in time of peace as well as in time of war. There was certainly much of irresolution in the civil and military conduct of our second war with England, but there must have been some saving grace in the men who preferred to stand by the moral order of the world, in spite of the strong temptation to break it. When, in November, 1814, Bolling Hall of Georgia introduced into the House of Representatives a resolution authorizing the issue of Treasury notes with the quality of legal tender attached, the House refused even to consider the proposition, by a vote of more than two to one.

Doubtless it is easy for Mr. Adams to show that the Government, in the estimation of many Federalists, was standing at the brink of dissolution in the closing months of the war. He reminds us that Timothy Pickering confidently expected a division of the Union; that less extreme Federalists looked to a dissolution of the Government from pure inanition; and that only a year after the war, Joseph Hopkinson, "a distinguished Federalist of Philadelphia," publicly expressed the opinion that, when the war ended, the Federal Government "was at the last gasp of existence," and that if the war had lasted six months longer, the Union would have been dissolved into its original elements. Mr. Adams quotes, it is true, the contrary opinion of Mr. Calhoun, but he thinks that Calhoun failed to understand the real temper of the New England States.

It seems to us that Mr. Adams, while not exaggerating at all the difficulties of the crisis, has not sufficiently allowed for the pressure in the year 1814 of the same considerations which in the year 1813 defeated, as he says, all the expectations and prognostications of the Federalists. In 1813, he argues, there was a popular movement of concentration "which acted in direct resistance to the movement of events." "Under circumstances following each other in necessity so stringent, no Federalist," he adds, "could doubt that society would pursue the predicted course—but it did not. Illogical and perverse, society persisted in extending itself on lines which ran into chaos"—only the chaos did not come. When the news of peace reached the United States in February, 1815, "no one stopped to ask," says Mr. Adams, "why a Government which was discredited and falling to pieces at one moment should appear as a successful and even a glorious national representative a moment afterwards." Perhaps no one stopped to ask this question, because the "collapse" of the Government failed at the time to assume the questionable shape in which it now appears under the scorching analysis of Mr. Adams. There is a certain easy-going optimism in the American people which often keeps them in heart and hope under the gravest trials, and which too often makes them over-tolerant of deplorable evils in their political methods and of deplorable breakdowns in their civil administrations. Perhaps it is indigenous in a democracy. Certainly the Athenians had it in a high degree, if we may judge from the self-complacent panegyrics which Thucydides puts in the mouth of Pericles. Whether we call it optimism, or whether we call it insensibility to peril, certain it is that the Administration of Madison never ceased to balance its hopes against its fears at every stage of the struggle, whatever might seem the fate of war, even when Ross and Cockburn thought it proper, as Mr. Adams expresses it, to burn the national Capitol "as they would have burned a negro kraal or a den of pirates." The one single merit conceded by the historian to Madison as an administrative officer is that he would cling to a favorite measure, like the embargo, for instance, with "a degree of obstinacy that resembled desperation." And Mr. Adams might have found the same optimistic persistency in the views of Jefferson, even at the darkest hour of the "crisis." In the closing months of the war, when the philosopher of Monticello was looking forward with dread to "another year of sufferance for men and money," and when he felt that the best hope of the nation was peace, he steadfastly refused to despair of the Republic. He admitted that the apprehended defection of Massachusetts was "a disagreeable circumstance," but argued that if it took place, she would probably remain neutral, and so leave the United States more "sufficient for one enemy without her"; while if she should join the enemy, and if the Federalists should call in the English army, it would only be a transfer of the scene of war, and would make it easy to get ten men to march against her for one who was willing to march against Canada.

In the closing chapter of his ninth volume Mr. Adams indulges in some philosophical reflections on American character which bear directly on the question in hand. After showing that antipathy to war ranked first among the traits of American character at the beginning of the present century, he adds:

"No European nation could have conducted a war as the people of America conducted the war of 1813. The possibility of doing so explained the national trait and assured its con-

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tinuance. . . . A people whose chief trait was antipathy to war, and to any system organized with military energy, could scarcely develop great results in national administration; yet the Americans prided themselves chiefly on their political capacity. Even the war did not undeceive them, although the incapacity brought into evidence by the war was undisputed, and was most remarkable among the communities which believed themselves to be most gifted with political sagacity. Virginia and Massachusetts by turns admitted failure in dealing with issues so simple that the newest societies, like Tennessee and Ohio, understood them by instinct. That incapacity in national politics should appear as a leading trait in American character was unexpected by Americans, but might naturally result from their conditions. The better test of American character was not political but social, and was found not in the Government but in the people."

Mr. Adams gives a very circumstantial and accurate account of the negotiations at Ghent which resulted in the treaty of peace with England. The superiority of the American negotiators, John Quincy Adams, Henry Clay, James A. Bayard, Albert Gallatin, and Jonathan Russell, over the British plenipotentiaries, Lord Gambier, Henry Goulburn, and Dr. Charles Adams, is easily shown. The honors of the negotiation are frankly conceded to Gallatin. Only those who are familiar with the bitter controversy which subsequently arose between John Quincy Adams and Jonathan Russell concerning a disputed point in the negotiation can measure the forbearance practised by the historian in portraying the part which Jonathan Russell took in it. The only hint we have of this controversy, which for years contributed a new word to our political dialect, is the incidental statement that John Quincy Adams never forgot that Russell had once voted with Henry Clay against him in the matter of the fisheries and their retention under the treaty.

We have left ourselves no room for comment on the interesting generalizations with which Mr. Adams concludes his history, when summing up the results of the social and political evolution accomplished in the United States during the sixteen years covered by the Administrations of Jefferson and Madison. He thinks that in 1815, after the war had tested their political and social character, the people of the United States ceased for the first time to doubt the path they were to follow. The American was then ascertained to be, in his political character, " a new variety of man." And the results of the war gave a new direction to the whole social movement—" widening the breach between European and American tastes." The South and West gave to society a character more aggressively American than had been known before. In a word, " American character was formed if not fixed."

In so writing it seems to us that Mr. Adams has given the best of all answers to a moral more frequently pointed in these nine volumes than any other—the moral aimed at puncturing, as an historical delusion, the idea that the Republican accession of 1801 involved any real break with the Federalist practices of 1798. There *was* such a break. The American " variety of man " dates, in his political character, from 1801 rather than from 1798. The Federalists of 1798 worked on political ideals which had European, and especially Anglican, history behind them. The Republicans of 1801 pitched their ideals, for good and for evil, to the newly evolving forces of the popular democracy which had a history before it. And hence it was that Federalism melted into Republicanism during " the era of good feeling " under Monroe.

It would be ungracious if we should here take our leave of Mr. Adams and his important work without confessing the obligations due to him for unflagging industry, for critical research, for philosophical breadth of view, and for a high degree of literary art in fusing his copious materials into a consistent story. In the case of a writer who has such pronounced opinions, and who never disguises them, abundant room is left for challenging his point of view, but small room is left for challenging his accuracy in statements of fact. He was called to deal with the elements of a new formative epoch in our political annals, and the history of such epochs must needs be rewritten again and again, according to their divergent aspects, and according to the changed perspective of men in the drift of human events. But it will rather be in the interpretation of the facts than in the discovery of new facts pertaining to the sixteen years of Jefferson's and Madison's rule, that future historians of the same period are likely to win their best applause.

With Stanley's Rear Column. By J. Rose Troup, late Transport Officer of the Emin Pasha Relief Expedition. With illustrations. 2d edition. London: Chapman & Hall; New York: Scribner & Welford. 1890. 8vo, pp. xii., 361.

THE first chapters of Mr. Troup's book, giving an account of his duties in connection with the Stanley Expedition up to the time of his arrival at the entrenched camp at Yambuya, are the most interesting of all. He went directly to the Congo from England to provide carriers for the thousand and more loads of the expedition from the head of navigation to Stanley Pool. Having been three years an officer of the Free State, he was able to accomplish this task promptly and efficiently, so as to merit his leader's warm approval. From his simple narrative a good idea is obtained of the transport service of this part of the river, as well as of the character of the goods carried and the manner in which they are made into loads. He gives an animated description of a market in which the " perpetual and almost deafening roar of voices " seems to have been the most striking feature. In this district there were four markets held regularly in different places on successive days, and the " Congo week " consists of these four days. Another entertaining passage is the account of the departure of the expedition from Stanley Pool, Mr. Troup having joined it the evening before. Naturally he was disappointed on finishing his special work to find himself attached to the rear column, but he apparently took it in manly fashion, and finally reached Yambuya about two months after Mr. Stanley left that station for Lake Albert.

The record of his life in camp is for the most part dreary reading. It is composed principally of extracts from his diary containing little information of general interest. This is caused, however, by his voluntary omission of " reference to affairs of a purely personal nature as well as others that I thought it best to omit," moved, it is evident, by a proper consideration for the memory of his dead comrades. As Major Barttelot apparently did not treat him with ordinary courtesy at times, especially when he was ill, this reticence is very commendable. In an account of his first conversation with this officer, he says: " It did not take me long to discover that he had an intense hatred of anything in the shape of a black man, for he made no disguise of this, but frequently mentioned the fact." Whether this hatred was shown in action as well as in words, he does not disclose. The monotony of camp-life was broken by a visit to Stanley Falls, where Mr. Troup seems to have become convinced that Tippu Tib was acting honestly by the expedition, and that it was actually out of his power to furnish men sooner than he did. This was followed by a trip across country to the Congo, in returning from which he had a bad fall that brought on a serious illness, and he was sent home in the midst of the final preparations for the eastward march.

The closing chapter contains the author's correspondence with Mr. Stanley in respect to the charges made by him against the officers of the unfortunate rear-column. In connection with the " introductory remarks," we think that Mr. Troup clearly shows that Mr. Stanley was both unjust and ungenerous in much that he wrote concerning that column. It is plain to us that there was no disobedience to their instructions, but that, so far as moving the rear-column was concerned, the officers were perfectly justified in remaining in camp until they received the carriers Tippu Tib had contracted to furnish. He is equally successful in demonstrating the absurdity of some of the specific charges made against him personally, and we are unable to find any excuse for Mr. Stanley's persistence in making them. But we cannot agree with Mr. Troup in his contention that he was not to be held in any way responsible for the condition of the rear-column, because he was a subordinate officer. If he was convinced, as he apparently was from the beginning, that Maj. Barttelot was unfit for his position, he should have done what he could to remove him from it, by force if necessary, in the interests of the expedition. And in referring to such a measure as mutiny, deserving of death, he is writing pure nonsense. To a certain extent—how great we are not called upon to state—he must be held jointly responsible with the others, including Mr. Stanley himself, for the wreck of the rear-column.

The diplomatic correspondence respecting the formation of the expedition is given in an appendix. The book is attractive in its appearance, with several interesting illustrations and portraits and a map of the Congo.

Warren Hastings. By Capt. L. G. Trotter. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1890.

THERE is nothing new in Capt. Trotter's Life of Warren Hastings, which was written for the " Rulers of India " series; but it gives a fairly readable account of the life and doings of a most interesting man, and it describes a very important period of Anglo-Indian history. Hastings was the first Governor-General of all British India, for before his time the three Presidencies of Bengal, Bombay, and Madras had been independently governed; he held that office longer than any of his successors, and during eleven years he was incessantly contending with bitter adversaries who were also his official colleagues, with formidable enemies abroad, and with the factious animosity of a formidable political party in England. He did his country great and manifold services for which he obtained no reward; while his zeal for the public interest led him into some errors for which he was impeached by the House of Commons, and acquitted after the longest state trial on record.

The story has been often told, and Macaulay's glittering essay is well known; but on the whole the ill-luck of Hastings has survived even his death, for he has not been very for-

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tunate in his biographers. Capt. Trotter does his best to explain the somewhat complicated events and transactions which have made this Governor-Generalship historically famous, and over which a sharp controversy had been kept up for more than a century—the Rohilla war, the hanging of the Brahmin Nand Kumar, the revolt at Benares, the duel with Philip Francis, and the treatment by Hastings of the Oudh begums. These things have furnished texts for some of the grandest orations in the English language and for some of the fiercest debates in the English Parliament; nor is Capt. Trotter to be blamed if the disputes are in these days mainly worn out and the discussions have taken a musty flavor. He is considerably entangled among outlandish names and places; he has to guide his readers through an unfamiliar Anglo-Indian phraseology; and perhaps he has scarcely succeeded in drawing a full-length portrait of Hastings, or in sketching the broad outlines of his policy.

Hastings was a bold, skilful, and masterly administrator, a true ruler of India, who set his country's advantage far above all personal wishes, and served it at the sacrifice even of his reputation. He carried his Government safely through one of the most perilous periods of Anglo-Indian history (1774–1784), when the English position in India was seriously threatened by two very formidable fighting Powers, Mysore and the Marattas, and when England herself was at war not only with all the maritime nations of Europe, but also with the American colonists. It is a remark of Sir James Mackintosh that Englishmen in a single generation lost one empire and gained another; he meant that they won India soon after they had lost their American possessions; and to Warren Hastings, more than to any other individual, it is due that England fared so much better in the Eastern than in the Western Continent.

While Capt. Trotter's work is somewhat defective in that breadth of treatment and artistic grouping of salient points which are needed to strike upon the popular mind clear impressions of confused incidents and remote scenes, he writes, nevertheless, with accuracy and good judgment, upon careful study of original records; so that this volume will be useful to those who desire to follow the course and understand the vicissitudes of a very remarkable career.

A System of Sight-singing from the Established Musical Notation. By Sedley Taylor. Macmillan & Co. Pp. 132.

ONE of the musical fads of unmusical England is the Tonic Sol-Fa system of notation—a partial return to antiquated mediæval methods, which has not found favor in the musical countries of Europe for the reason that it applies only to vocal and not to instrumental music, thus necessitating the learning of both systems, the Sol-Fa and the staff notation, while even in vocal music its advantages disappear in modern compositions, with their numerous chromatic intervals and constant changes of key. Mr. Sedley Taylor's book is an attempt to combine the advantages of the two systems. As he remarks on p. 115, "In the graphic up-and-down-ness of its pitch notation the staff has a very palpable advantage over the dead-level lettering of the Tonic Sol-Fa. It has been my object in the preceding pages to show how we may keep unbroken hold of the *tonic principle*, which is the soul of the T. S.-F., without sacrificing the *pictorial representation of pitch*, which is the special and conspicuous merit of the staff notation." He justly complains that most vocalists can sing nothing but what they have carefully learned beforehand, like school-boys who can only read from their own books; and he holds that "the complicated repulsiveness of the pitch notation in the old system must be held mainly responsible for the humiliating fact that, of the large number of musically well-endowed persons of the opulent classes who have undergone an elaborate vocal training, comparatively few are able to sing even the simplest music at sight."

Unquestionably our present notation is capable of simplification and improvement, but we doubt if anything is gained by an alliance with Tonic Sol-Fa. The pupils in the solfeggio classes of our national conservatory read music readily, and if such books as Riemann's or Ritter's on Dictation were more generally used, sight-reading would be a less rare accomplishment. It is all very well for the Sol-Faists to speak about "throwing at the singer's head a mass of gratuitous complications for which the assumed convenience of players on instruments with only twelve notes in the octave forms the sole excuse," but it must be remembered that it was Bach who was chiefly instrumental in securing this device, which is to be regarded as one of his greatest achievements in behalf of practical music. Mr. Taylor's attempt to help out his plan with darkened and colored lines and spaces is more ingenious, we fear, than practical. Nevertheless, there are many valuable suggestions in this book, which may be cordially commended to all teachers and students who take a more than merely mechanical interest in their art. The style is clear, and the publisher's work gives the book an elegant and distinguished appearance.

Appendiculæ Historicæ; or, Shreds of History Hung on a Horn. By Frederic W. Lucas. London: Henry Stevens & Son. 1891.

MR. LUCAS is the possessor of a curious relic of early American wars in the shape of a powder-horn on which is engraved a rude map of the Hudson, the Mohawk, Lake Ontario, Lake Champlain, the St. Lawrence, and parts adjacent, with the towns and forts pertaining to them. In explaining this curiosity, Mr. Lucas quotes a passage from Parkman's 'Montcalm and Wolfe,' in which, speaking of the New England militia at Lake George in 1755, that writer says: "At their sides were slung powder-horns on which, in the leisure of the camp, they carved quaint devices with the points of their jack-knives"; and Mr. Lucas adds that his horn also, on close examination, proves to have been carved with the point of a knife and not with a graver's tool. Such powder-horns are not uncommon. They are often, in spite of the difficulties of the case, engraved with maps or attempts at maps, though Mr. Lucas's horn is a remarkably elaborate specimen of this untutored cartography. His book is devoted to illustrating and interpreting this curious performance, which may have been the work of one of Rogers's rangers in 1757 or 1758, or of some New England soldier encamped with Amherst on Lake Champlain in 1759. In any case it does credit to the artist's ingenuity and patience.

Mr. Lucas's exposition is extremely comprehensive and far-reaching. He begins with a chapter on the discovery and exploration of America, from pre-Columbian times to the year 1600, followed by another on the early settlements, a third on the contact of Indians and Europeans, a fourth on the wars down to the year 1755, and then several others telling the story of the last French war, during which the horn came into being. All these chapters are well-executed compendiums.

Then comes the section of the book entitled *Tabula Cornea*, in which the author follows with skill and research the indications furnished by the horn, and gives an excellent résumé of the topography of the regions in question, together with facsimiles of maps, some of which are so rare as to be almost inaccessible in the original. This feature of the book gives it substantial value to students on this side of the Atlantic, as do also Mr. Lucas's notes and his list of authorities, which indicate diligent research. Besides the very valuable maps, the book is illustrated with a portrait of the horn, and a projection *in plano* of the curious tracings upon it.

Spectacles Contemporains. By Vte. E. Melchoir de Vogüé. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.

IN this volume of newspaper and magazine articles, M. de Vogüé has, as he says, "endeavored to note down some moments of contemporary history." The earliest, on "Affairs of Rome," dates from 1887; the latest, that on the opening up of Africa, which is compiled from different books, was published in October, 1890. Although these end articles are well done, in the author's familiar light style, the chief interest centres in those on "The Death of William I. of Germany," "Letters from Asia [the Inauguration of the Samarcand Railway]," and "Gen. Loris Melikoff." It is curious to see a French ex-diplomat striving to be impartial, in print, to the conqueror of his country. He succeeds very well, but adds nothing new to our knowledge, whatever effect his writing may have produced at the moment, which is now somewhat antiquated, according to our rapid notions. The letters from Asia are lightly written in an easy, picturesque way, with occasional well-turned epithets; but one gets, on the whole, a poor view of the famous opening ceremonies because of the very facilities which the writer enjoyed, on account of his relationship by marriage to Gen. Annenkoff, the builder of the railway. Delicacy prevents decided reference to the personal details and (through apprehension of over-friendly estimation of the family talent) to the engineering difficulties. Hence, there is an element of weakness where strength would have been looked for by people acquainted with the state of affairs. The article upon Loris Melikoff, on the other hand, is a perfect cameo portrait of a remarkable and highly interesting man. Melikoff's career, which is instructive in many ways, and was run at a peculiarly exciting epoch of Russian modern history, is handled with precisely that amount of sympathy and criticism which sets both the biographer and his old acquaintance in the most favorable, yet also the most just, light. It constitutes an important page in the perplexing Russian situation preceding the death of Alexander II., and its value lies in its coming from the pen of a foreigner whose endeavor is to be always honorable and impartial about a country with which he has the advantage of personal knowledge.

A Memoir of George Cruikshank. By Frederic G. Stephens. [The Great Artists.] Scribner & Welford.

THE illustrator of the 'Sketch-Book' and the 'Comic Almanack' has not been fortunate in his biographers. Mr. Blanchard Jerrold was very ill-qualified for the task. Mr. Stephens is more critical and better informed, but his

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mind is disorderly, and his style careless, discursive, and involved. His personal prejudices and literary and political predilections cannot be repressed. He jealously calls Prof. Wilson "this lumbering impostor of an admirer," and says that his "clumsy, half-tipsy, or quite tipsy exercises . . . in what he was pleased to call 'Noctes Ambrosianæ' (the popularity of which is one of the wonders of literary history), gave him occasion to praise George Cruikshank." Again and again he seeks to make his memoir an anti-home-rule tract; and with a fine deficiency of the sense of humor *ex officio* ascribable to him, he avers that "no account of Cruikshank approaches completeness which does not take note of the terrible indictment embodied in his illustrations to Maxwell's book [the 'Irish Rebellion']." This is 'The Verdict' with a vengeance.

The life of a caricaturist is preëminently in his work; and the biographer who has not unlimited facsimiles at his command, is under the necessity of describing design after design with the certainty of wearying both himself and his readers. We sympathize with Mr. Stephens in this particular, and can but applaud his courage in appending to his own narrative Thackeray's *tour de force* called an 'Essay on the Genius of George Cruikshank' (1840), in which the writer's own genius is taxed to vivify these descriptions of plates not visible to the reader's eye. Even he admits, as he nears the end, that "it is very difficult to find new terms of praise, as find them one must, when reviewing Mr. Cruikshank's publications, and more difficult still (as the reader of this notice will no doubt have perceived for himself long since) to translate his designs into words, and go to the printer's box for a description of all that fun and humor which the artist can produce by a few skilful turns of his needle." This Essay occupies half of the thin volume, and in point of readability is much the better half. Both parts are freely sprinkled with facsimiles, both rare and familiar, and at the close there is a chronological list of the principal books illustrated by Cruikshank.

Fathers of Biology. By Charles McRae. London: Percival & Co. 1890. 8vo, pp. 108.

THAT biology has a history reaching back more than twenty centuries will come to many as something of a revelation. Fully occupied with the present, the past has had none of their attention, and a vague idea has established itself that this branch of science, like geology and others of recent prominence, has no history worthy of notice previous to the current century, or at furthest before the time of Linné. Mr. McRae's neat little volume efficiently dispels this impression by tracing the advancement of our knowledge through the lives of Hippocrates, Aristotle, Galen, Vesalius, and Harvey—as he aptly styles them, fathers of biology. A better choice of men could not have been made. Each marks an epoch that is a decided advance upon that of his predecessors. Excellent judgment is also shown in the selection of the facts presented. The book is the result of a careful study of the best sources of information. The sketches are complete in themselves, yet the connections and the amount of dependence are sufficiently evident. It is apparent from their records that the great claim of these early biologists to our remembrance and gratitude rests on their accurate observations. These have been built into the foundations of science, but their theories have been thrown aside or forgotten. Comparisons of conditions indicate that future histories based upon the present will not differ greatly in these respects from those of the past.

Attractive and short, the essays before us are such as one enjoys in his half-hours of leisure. The volume is a good one to put in the hands of any naturalist, young or old, whose conception of his science has become narrow and distorted through exclusive attention to modern progress.

The Hittites: Their Inscriptions and their History. By John Campbell, M.A., LL.D., Professor in the Presbyterian College, Montreal. Toronto: Williamson & Co.; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. 1890. 2 vols., 8vo, vii. 399, iv. 349.

No ancient inscriptions have more stubbornly resisted attempts at decipherment than the Hittite; they have excited keen interest, but they remain, along with the Etruscan, among the unsolved problems of our day. Lenormant and Halévy have hazarded conjectures as to Hittite ethnography, Sayce has offered tentative translations of inscriptions, and Conder has undertaken to read them all; but the learned world has remained unconvinced, and has declined to venture an opinion on the question whether the Hittite language is Semitic or non-Semitic. It is all the more interesting, therefore, to find a man who offers, as Prof. Campbell does, what he believes to be a perfect key to the enigma.

The quantity of material collected in these two volumes is enormous, ranging over the whole world. Drawings of the inscriptions have been furnished the author by Mr. W. H. Rylands of the Society of Biblical Archæology. The work is divided into two parts; the first treating of the decipherment of the inscriptions, the second tracing the history of the Hittites from a point three generations before Abraham. "The materials for this history," says Mr. Campbell, "are furnished by the Egyptian and Assyrian monuments, by the Greek historians, and by almost universal tradition, arising from the fact that the Hittites were in many respects the greatest of ancient peoples, and constituted the substratum of all early civilizations." Accordingly we have chapters on the Hittites in Palestine, Edom, Egypt, Mesopotamia, Western Asia, Eastern Asia, and America. Historical episodes, hitherto unknown, are narrated at length, and the history of the world assumes an undreamt-of unity. Hindus and Japanese, Italians and Aztecs appear as brethren; it is possible from this point of view that we ourselves are in part Hittites. These conclusions are reached by an unrestrained use of all existing historical and linguistic material. Hittite words are explained from the Japanese, Corean, and American vocabularies. The value of the characters is obtained from the Cypriote syllabary, the Corean alphabet, and the Aztec hieroglyphics. The Hittite first personal pronoun and substantive verb are found to be identical with those of the Lesghian, the Basque, the Corean, the Aztec, and other languages. "Turanian" is the name which our author adopts for this widespread family of languages. The new historical combinations made in the work are beyond computation. Tyndarus, King of Lacedæmon, father of Helen, is stated to be another form of the Syrian Hadadezer. The Semitic deity Baal is explained to be nobody but Bela son of Beor, the first Edomite king. The Iroquois League, we are told, goes back to the time when Chaldean Kings of Hittite birth called themselves lords of the four races.

Sober evidence for this enormous construction of history Prof. Campbell does not offer. The study of the material he has so laboriously collected has not unnaturally aroused in him an enthusiasm which has blinded his eyes to the principles of critical investigation. He permits himself to combine things which have no connection with one another. The Hittite monuments are worthy of study, but they will yield solid results only to patient, scientific examination. The volumes under consideration do not further the solution of the question. Even the collection of historical data is dangerous; facts and fancies are so commingled as easily to mislead the unwary reader.

Hannibal: A History of the Art of War among the Carthaginians and Romans down to the Battle of Pydna, 168 B. C., with a detailed account of the Second Punic War. With 227 charts, maps, plans of battle, and tactical manœuvres, cuts of armor, weapons, and uniforms. By Theodore Ayrault Dodge, Brevet Lieutenant-Colonel, U. S. A., retired. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. Pp. xxiii., 682.

THIS is the second in the "Great Captains" series prepared by Col. Dodge. The first traced with fulness the career of Alexander of Macedon; the present covers the development of the Roman military system, and shows how it was perfected under the severe teachings of Hannibal. Like Napoleon, the great Carthaginian taught his enemies by numberless defeats, till they mastered his art and learned how to defeat him with his own weapons. The organization and instruction of both armies is analyzed with minute care, and every point is lavishly illustrated.

The debated questions regarding Hannibal's Italian campaigns are treated in much more than common detail, especially the question of the route he followed in crossing the Alps when first invading the Latin territory. Although Col. Dodge follows in the main the conclusions of Mommsen, he marshals the evidence from which the conclusions are drawn, and fills the story out with whatever authentic material has survived, and thus gives local color and increased interest to the whole. He has gone over the ground with his Polybius in his hand, and judged for himself the questions of strategy, in regard to which the conformation of the ground is often decisive.

Compared with the Alexander, there would seem to be a purpose to make the style more colloquial, with an occasional approach too near to slang as the result. Clear-cut simplicity is of all things to be most desired in a military narrative, and this is consistent with a high level of dignity, as well as with terse and idiomatic English. The Hannibal reaches this level generally, but there are some marks of carelessness which suggest a caution. The volume is in many ways a model for treatises of the kind, and the authentic copies of arms and equipments from ancient monuments are a constant aid as well as pleasure as one turns the pages.

Life of Richard Brinsley Sheridan. By Lloyd C. Sanders. [Great Writers Series.] London: Walter Scott.

BY a stroke of good fortune, the author of the "School for Scandal" has at last found a friendly biographer. Until now almost the only biography of Sheridan which was not evidently hostile or offensively "superior," was that prefixed to an American edition of

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his two chief comedies issued in Boston five or six years ago. Watkins was a political opponent; Moore was a trifler who betrayed his hero; Prof. Smyth was another traitor, whose book drew from Sheridan's granddaughter, the Hon. Mrs. Norton, a castigation as severe as it was deserved; and Mrs. Oliphant combined the acme of incompetence with the utmost carelessness. It is scarcely disputable that Mrs. Oliphant's sketch of Sheridan is by far the most slovenly volume in the series of "English Men of Letters," which Mr. John Morley has generally maintained at a high level. It is pleasant to be able to record that Mr. Sanders's sketch of Sheridan is one of the very best volumes in the series of "Great Writers"—perhaps it may even be called the best after Mr. Austin Dobson's admirable biography of Goldsmith.

Mr. Sanders is not blind to Sheridan's very obvious faults, and he makes no attempt to gloss over his many failings. He has gone to the sources for his facts, although he is able to add but little to the discoveries of earlier investigators, except possibly in his fuller use of more recent political biographies to illustrate Sheridan's public life. He has been unusually successful in the proportion of his biography: the literary career of Sheridan and the political are well balanced against each other; and there is no effect of broken continuity when we pass from the chapters treating of the production of the "School for Scandal" and the "Critic" to that treating of the trial of Warren Hastings at Westminster and the Begum speech.

There is a sufficient index; and to this as to the other volumes of the series Mr. John Anderson of the British Museum has appended a bibliography consisting chiefly of a transcript of the entries in the British Museum catalogue, with a few stray additions from Poole's Index and elsewhere.

Imperial Germany. By Sidney Whitman. [Vol. 2691 of the Tauchnitz Edition of British Authors.]

THE first edition of this reprint was published in London in 1888. It is not remarkable for anything unless it be extravagant praises of the beauties of paternal government, and slipshod, not to say ungrammatical, English. It may be warmly recommended to college examiners in English who are in search of rank specimens of "English as she should not be wrote." The following examples may serve out of the many with which the book is studded:

"The pen that indites therein an anti-German article, has nobody at its back, but he who holds it in his hand, the single individual, who produces this lucubration in his study, and the protector that a Russian paper usually possesses, some high official who has got entangled in party politics, and who perhaps happens to grant this paper his protection, both weigh but as a feather against the authority of his Majesty the Emperor of Russia." (P. 276.)

"Some people aver that even now there are very few items the Germans produce that they do not owe their latest improvements to English or American ideas." (P. 249.)

"Thus at the Academy of Vienna, in the year 1880, there were 400 pupils in piano playing, and of these 350 were girls, most of whom were presumably let loose on the community as piano masters and mistresses." (P. 59.)

"This school holds that parliamentary party government is unsuited to direct the destinies of a great nation; that the opinions of a majority offer no guarantee of its soundness." (P. 93.)

"The cost of forcing the concessions through Parliament have in course of time cost the companies millions." (P. 113.)

The author devotes a whole chapter to Bismarck, and his admiration for that statesman warms him into a series of metaphors that might have excited the emulation of Sir Boyle Roche. Some of them deserve preservation; the three that follow are average samples:

"After being identified for years with open antagonism to the Papal See, it must have cost his pride no trifling pang to step out lustily on the road to Canossa—he, a stanch Protestant—smoking the pipe of peace with the placidity of an honest purpose." (P. 130.)

"Also the thunderbolts that the late M. Gambetta hurled from his jaws only served to reëcho the cry of a defeated country." (P. 140.)

"Bismarck's is not a nature we can imagine turning out well-oiled periods or emitting polished Ciceronic shafts. But if his periods are nervously jagged and lack rotundity, they fly as straight as a dart, and, where they strike, they pierce the enemy through and through, and thence pursue their winged course right across the country, to be remembered as sledge-hammer blows of conviction and hard-striking reason." (P. 141.)

Royal Edinburgh; Her Saints, Kings, Prophets, and Poets. By Mrs. Oliphant. With illustrations by George Reid, R.S.A. Macmillan & Co. 1890.

IN the present work Mrs. Oliphant appears as the real Scotswoman devoted to her illustrious country and its glorious capital. Not that she ever disguised her Scottish nature, or wrote a word untrue to it. But here she drops the English households and Florentine painters that have so often and so well occupied her pen, and comes forth as the historian of her own "land of cakes." The book is not a topographical guide or an architectural handbook. A large number of the striking buildings and spots in Edinburgh are reviewed, but solely as the scenes of touching and picturesque incidents in the lives of illustrious men and women, high dames and mighty earls, princes, prophets, and poets. The Castle and Holyrood, St. Giles's and the Kirk of Field, the Cowgate and the Canongate, the Nor' Loch and the Lawnmarket, are there; but as soon as the fortunes of the drama point to other spots, the Maiden City is left, and other scenes, Falkland and St. Andrew's, Stirling and Perth, await the reader, while the story of the hero or heroine is discussed. It is a book of persons, not of places, and one who did not know Edinburgh well already would gather but a fragmentary notion of it, and acknowledge that he could find a better guide-book in the 'Heart of Midlothian.'

Mrs. Oliphant begins with one long and interesting chapter on the person through whom the wild Celtic kings of Scotland were first brought into relations with the empire and the other great kingdoms of Europe, Margaret the Atheling, great-grandmother of Henry II., and Queen of Malcolm Ceanmohr. She traces with a loving hand the memorials we possess of this remarkable woman, who, almost single-handed, founded a home in Scotland for all the arts of refinement and culture which that age possessed, and brought camp and cottage under the softening influences of the Court and the Church. Passing lightly over the remarkable monarchs of Margaret's blood who did so much for Scotland in two centuries, and likewise saying but little of the strife for the throne and the reigns of the Bruces, Mrs. Oliphant devotes half-a-dozen chapters to the "Stewards of Scotland," as she somewhat fantastically calls the Stewart family—Robert II., Robert III., and the five Jameses.

To the strange fascination which hangs round every member of this ill-starred house, except, perhaps, Robert II., the author surrenders herself entirely. The strange succession of brilliant and sombre adventures—the coronations in childhood, repeated again and again, the captivities, the assassinations, the civil wars—the gorgeous pageantry and the ghastly crime which seem to blaze and lower over every step of the Stewart line, take possession of her whole being. She has studied the ancient historians diligently, and when they do not afford material enough for her, she does not hesitate to draw avowedly on her imagination to paint in full the gorgeous or crimsoned scenes which she thinks the books have sketched too lightly. She will not let one of the Stewart kings depart without a blessing. It is hard work with all except James I. Even through the halo of the fifteenth century, they all have too much of the qualities that overthrew them in the seventeenth—self-will against the wisest counsellors, weak devotion to the most unworthy favorites, recklessness in rewarding services, implacability in the pursuit of injuries, rashness where caution was most needed, timidity where firmness might have saved them. The early Stewarts were constantly trying to govern well, and as constantly finding out that no king that ever lived can govern a country all by himself, especially if he contrives to alienate most of its great men. We suspect that if James IV. could rise from his nameless grave at Flodden he would never know his own portrait as Mrs. Oliphant draws it.

It is rather disappointing, when one looks for Edinburgh under the most celebrated of the Stewarts, to find three chapters following the adventures not of Queen Mary, but of John Knox and George Buchanan. Not that it is a mistake; for readers nowadays are likely to know much more of the Enchantress Queen than of her two greatest subjects, and Mrs. Oliphant's account of them is lively and valuable. It is very amusing to see how she deals with the question of the Queen's guilt. Professing to leave it aside, she finds it forcing itself upon her notice, and, like Scott in 'The Abbot' (she is Sir Walter's own child in literature), she does not quite know what to do about it. She wants very much indeed Queen Mary to be innocent; she sees the irrelevance of many of Knox's charges; yet she equally sees the absurdities involved in the position of the Queen's defenders, and, on the whole, she is very glad that saying what she has got to say has taken up so much room that she has to leave out the main issue.

The book closes with interesting and appreciative chapters on the three poets whose connection with Edinburgh, whether long or short, was so important in its influence on their literary career—Allan Ramsay, Burns, and Scott.

The Goodwins of Hartford, Connecticut, Descendants of William and Ozias Goodwin. Compiled for James Junius Goodwin. Hartford: Brown & Gross. 1891. 8vo, pp. 798.

IT appears from the preface that the American portion of this genealogy was prepared by Mr. F. F. Starr, while the English notes were furnished by the Rev. Augustus Jessopp of Scarning, England, and by Mr. Henry F. Waters, whose knowledge extends over Old and New England. The American portion shows a commendable industry in collecting the history of a widely spread race, few of whose members have arrived at great distinction; but this labor is rendered almost useless by the adoption of a peculiar system of arrangement which renders it almost impossible to trace any individual or to form any idea of the extent of the branches. It is cumbrous,

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and, in its system of cross references, very unnecessarily expensive. As we have often said in these columns, it is passing strange that genealogists will deliberately ignore the simple and well arranged plan used in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register*, and throw all their valuable material into a shapeless mass.

As to the English portion, the ancestors of the two emigrant brothers, William and Ozias Goodwin, are still to be found. It seems certain that one Robert Woodward of Braintree County, Essex, in 1640, gave ten shillings to his daughter Mary, wife of Ozias Goodwin, now in New England. But even with this most valuable clue the emigrants have not been found among the Goodwins of Essex or of Suffolk. It seems that the search has not been abandoned, and if any living man can be expected to succeed, certainly Mr. Waters is the one. We sincerely trust that this success is not far off, and then we may hope to see the publication of the volume herein referred to, which shall give the full results of the search among the remaining evidences of the Goodwins of Blaxhall and other families of the name.

Sir Francis Drake. By Julian Corbett. [English Men of Action.] Macmillan & Co. 1890 209 pp. 8vo.

A SATISFACTORY life of Drake is still to be written. Those which have appeared hitherto have been defective, imperfect in method, inaccurate in detail, though they could not be uninteresting. The little volumes of the "Men of Action" series are not to be judged as elaborate biographies, yet we may reasonably expect to find the main facts and dates somewhere stated in a sober manner, or, as reasonably, be annoyed if we do not. In the present case we do not. The narrative is turgid and pretentious; its affectation of insight into the workings of all men's minds, at the time of Drake's adventures, is irritating in its absurdity: one knows not whether that which is stated here is an attested fact, a surmise of the author, or an excursion of unbridled fancy. The book is destitute of nearly everything which should characterize a good biographical sketch. Yet so extraordinary was Drake's career, so heroic his adventures, so romantic his daring and his success, that, like others before him, Mr. Corbett has not been able to make his tale unreadable, nor entirely deprive his work, however feeble, of the brilliancy reflected from his subject.

Even if it had been pure fiction, the book, for its proper understanding, should have had a map. Considered as biography or history, the absence of such a key to its better comprehension is difficult to explain.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Arène, P. The Golden Coat. Harper & Bros. 50 cents.
Allen, William Francis. Essays and Monographs. (Memorial Volume.) Boston: Geo. H. Ellis. $2.
Austin, A. The Human Tragedy. Macmillan & Co. $1.75.
Aveling, E. An Introduction to the Study of Botany. Macmillan & Co. $1.10.
Belot, A. The Woman of Ice. St. Paul: The Price-McGill Publishing Co.
Bridgett, Rev. T. E. Life and Writings of Sir Thomas Moore. Catholic Publication Society Co. $2.
Capp, W. M. The Daughter—Her Health, Education, and Wedlock. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis. $1.
Chittenden, L. E. Recollections of President Lincoln. Harper & Bros.
Cooley, Alice K. Asaph. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Döllinger, Ignaz von. Declarations and Letters on the Vatican Decrees. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.50.
Dowling, R. A Baffling Quest. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Edwards, M. B. Forestalled. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Fantasy. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Fine, H. B. The Number System of Algebra. Leach, Shewell & Sanborn.
Fleming, Agnes. A Wronged Wife. G. W. Dillingham.
Gay, E. H. Municipal Bonds. Boston: Damrell & Upham. 50 cents.
Gordon, A. C. Staunton, Va.: Its Past, Present and Future. The South Publishing Co.
Gordon, Mrs. J. E. H. Decorative Electricity. Charles Scribner's Sons. $3.75.
Harrison, Mrs. B. The Washington Cook Book. G. W. Dillingham.
Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Vol. II. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.
Heimburg, W. Hortense. Chicago: Rand, McNally & Co.
Henty, G. A. A Hidden Foe. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Higginson, T. W. Life of Francis Higginson. Dodd, Mead & Co. 75 cents.
Holder, C. F. Charles Darwin. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Irving, W. The Alhambra. Boston: Ginn & Co. 50 cents.
Kant's Principles of Politics. Charles Scribner's Sons. $1.
Keith, L. A Lost Illusion. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Latham, Rev. H. Pastor Pastorum. James Pott & Co. $1.50.
Lennep, J. Van. The Story of an Abduction of the 17th Century. W. S. Gottsberger & Co.
Macleod, H. D. The Theory of Credit. Vol. II., Part II. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.50.
Maeterlinck, M. Blind, The Intruder. Washington: Wm. H. Morrison.
Major, G. M. The Background of Mystery. De Vinne Press.
Marley, C. R. A Social Meteor. Street & Smith.
Maxwell, Wm. H. Advanced Lessons in English Grammar. American Book Co. 60 cents.
McLaren, E. T. Dr. John Brown and his Sister Isabella. 4th ed. Edinburgh: David Douglas; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Memoirs of Prince de Talleyrand. Vol. I. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $2.50.
Memoirs of the Prince de Talleyrand. Vol. II. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Moore, G. Impressions and Opinions. London: David Nutt.
Müller, Prof. F. Max. Physical Religion. Longmans, Green & Co. $3.
Murray, D. C., & Henry Herman. He Fell Among Thieves. Macmillan & Co. $1.25.
Neiderberger, J. German Colloquial Grammar and Composition Book. Part I. Boston: Carl Schoenhof.
Osborne, Emily F. D. Political and Social Letters of a Lady of the Eighteenth Century, 1721–1771. Dodd, Mead & Co. $2.50.
Palmer, Prof. G. H. The Odyssey of Homer. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $2.
Peterson's National Cook Book. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 25 cents.
Phelps, H. P. Hamlet, from the Actors' Standpoint. New York: Edgar S. Werner. $1.25.
Politikos. The Sovereigns and Courts of Europe. D. Appleton & Co. $1.50.
Preston, W. S. The Blessed Sacrament. The Catholic Publication Co. $1.
Price, L. L. Short History of Political Economy in England from Adam Smith to Arnold Toynbee. London: Methuen & Co.
Prudden, Dr. T. M. Drinking-Water and Ice-Supplies. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 75 cents.
Rabusson, H. Madame d'Orgevaut's Husband. Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.
Rhys, J. Studies in the Arthurian Legend. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. $3.25.
Richards, A. M. Letter and Spirit: Poems. Boston: J. G. Cupples Co. $1.50.
Ritchie, D. G. The Principles of State Interference. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Roberts, C. H. Down the Ohi-o. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co. $1.25.
Ross, C. The Speculator. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Roth, Prof. C. The Student's Atlas of Artistic Anatomy. B. Westermann & Co. $7.50.
Ruskin, J. The Seven Lamps of Architecture. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $2.75.
Ruskin, J. The Two Paths. Charles E. Merrill & Co. $1.50.
Sand, G. Mauprat. Chicago: Laird & Lee.
Sandeau, J. Mademoiselle de la Seiglière. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.
Schopenhauer, A. The Art of Literature. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.
Sergeant, Adeline. Brooke's Daughter. United States Book Co. 50 cents.
Shakespeare's Works. [Cambridge Shakspere.] Vol. II. Macmillan & Co. $3.
Shakespeare's King Henry the Eighth. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Sherard, R. H. An American Snob. W. D. Rowland. 25 cents.
Shoemaker, J. V. Heredity, Health, and Personal Beauty. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.
Sladen, D. W. B. Australian Lyrics. Cassell Publishing Co.
Sladen, D. W. B. A Poetry of Exiles. Cassell Publishing Co.
Sladen, D. W. B. Edward the Black Prince. Cassell Publishing Co.
Sladen, D. W. B. The Spanish Armada. Cassell Publishing Co.
Smiles, S. Memoir and Correspondence of the Late John Murray. 2 vols. Charles Scribner's Sons. $9.
Smith, Goldwin. Canada and the Canadian Question. Macmillan & Co. $2.
Soames, Laura. Introduction to the Study of Phonetics. $1.50.
Steele, Sarah L. The Right Hon. Arthur MacMurrough Kavanagh: A Biography. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Stephen, L., and Lee, S. Dictionary of National Biography. Vol. XXVI. Henry II.—Hindley. Macmillan & Co. $3.75.
Stevens, O. C. An Idyl of the Sun. Griffith, Axtell & Cady Co.
Stillé, C. J. Life and Times of John Dickinson, 1732–1808. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $3.
Stubbs, C. W. The Land and the Laborers. London: Swan Sonnenschein & Co.

Fine Arts.

PORTRAITS AT THE ACADEMY.

WHATEVER may be the general average of merit at the spring exhibitions at the Academy, in one branch at least of the painter's art, and a most important one, the display is always good. There is usually a considerable number of excellent portraits, and sometimes one or two of surpassing merit. If the hanging is badly done, if quiet pictures are placed in jarring contrast with noisy and obtrusive ones, if good pictures are often placed over doors and very bad ones on the line—if, in short, the general aspect of the annual exhibitions is not what it might be if the Committee were allowed to work with no other recommendation for putting pictures in good places on the walls but their merit—the portraits somehow make themselves felt, and this year is no exception. There is bad hanging and confusion of tone, but half-a-dozen notable works in portraiture have been very well placed, and they constitute the most interesting feature of the exhibition. Mr. Sargent's beautiful portrait of a young lady in a pink gown with gray ribbons, holding a couple of orchids in her hands, "Portrait," No. 230, must be classed among the best of his works, and it is one of the most charming of all of the portraits of women he has painted. Another portrait from his hand, that of a gentleman, "Portrait," No. 388, is lifelike and most cleverly done. It seems as though the painter had "forced the note" a little in this head as in other recent work, such as the portrait of Joseph Jefferson, now at The Players, which was exhibited in the last autumn exhibition at the Academy. The reds and blues are violent, and it looks as if the artist made them so purposely, counting on the effects of time to give tone and not detract in strength from the painting. As they are now, freshly painted, these pictures are rather harsh and just a little common in color. No such criticism, however, applies to the portrait first mentioned. The young lady is suavely and delicately painted; and while the color scheme is not on the whole a striking one, such as it is it is pleasing and harmonious, and the canvas is one of the most attractive which this very able painter has yet shown.

Very good work in drawing, in modelling, and in the observation of values is contained in the excellent picture, by André Castaigne, "Portrait," No. 454, a young man, in a black velvet jacket, sitting astride a chair; and there is excellent painting, much dignity and repose, and the most competent sort of general treatment in the portrait of a lady by Mr. Vinton (No. 162). It is solid and luminous, and if it only had just a trifle more individuality in it, it would overstep the line that divides thoroughly good work from masterpieces. It is good enough as it is, though, to be ranked with the best portraits of the year, and it undoubtedly shows Mr. Vinton at his best as a painter of portraits of women. Mr. Beckwith, too, is notably successful in characterization in his picture of a lady in street costume, "Portrait of Mrs. A. R. F.," No. 103, quite as skilfully handled as any of his better work and particularly clever in the treatment of the dress; and there is a head of a lady by Alfred Q. Collins, "Portrait of Mrs. L.," No. 468, which, in spite of a distressingly aggressive blue gown, is a nice canvas to look at because the head is pleasing and the painting good enough to study. There is something good in the way of sobriety and force, and not a little quaint charm, in the large picture of three little girls, "Portraits of the Misses H.," No. 279, by Eleanor Norcross, but it is placed over one of the doors and cannot be more than half seen.

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Mr. Chase has painted the portrait of a well-known artist, "Portrait," No. 118, in just about the way one painter ought to paint another—without the slightest affectation, seriously, and with more thought of things artistic than of those other annoying things that friends of the philistinic sitter are always imposing on the portrait-painter in the way of costume. Mr. Whittredge has seated himself in Mr. Chase's studio, palette in hand and a canvas before him, and Mr. Chase has apparently occupied himself with the problem of making the picture on his canvas look as much like what he had before him as possible. There isn't any composition—it is a study on a large scale, but it is a very good study, it is a very life-like picture, and it is painted with all Mr. Chase's knowledge. His knowledge, it may be said, is seen in this canvas quite as much in what he has made little of as in what he has most insisted upon.

Mr. Blashfield's "Portrait of a Lady," No. 134, is an excellent work and one of the very good things of its class in the exhibition. It is hung higher on the wall than it deserved. A full-length portrait of a lady (No. 54), by Joseph F. Mathews, has been very badly placed in a dark corner of the corridor. It is quite impossible to see it except by gas-light when the exhibition is open in the evening, and that is not much better than not seeing it at all. It seems to be very good, and enough of the lower half of the canvas receives light upon it to show that the dress is well painted and interesting in color. William Bailey Faxon in "A Lady's Profile," No. 5; Harper Pennington, in a striking portrait of a boy (No. 49), C. Coventry Haynes, in "Portrait," No. 69; J. Wells Champney, in a pastel head of a lady (No. 76); Will H. Low, in "A Girl in Black," No. 101; W. Howard Hart, in "Study," No. 106; Samuel Isham, in "Portrait," No. 220; Robert Gordon Hardie, in "Portrait of Prof. E. Charlier," No. 322; Howard R. Butler, in "Portrait," No. 380; S. Mary Norton, in "Portrait—Mother and Child," No. 393; A. Menocal, in "Portrait of Mr. G.," No. 465, and Charles Noël Flagg, in "Portrait of Mark Twain," No. 378, are among the artists who have contributed other notable works in the class we are speaking of, and whose pictures for one reason or another deserve to be mentioned among the better things on the walls.

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